

The Nation.

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The Week.

Mr. Bryan's explicit declaration, at last, that he will not be a candidate for the Presidency in 1904, should be worth thousands of votes for Democratic Congressmen next November. Many who are desirous of recording at the polls a verdict against the Republican party, have been hesitating through fear lest they might seem to be endorsing Bryanism. They are anxious to express their disgust and resentment at the betrayal of Cuba, at the refusal to amend an iniquitous tariff, and at the other misdemeanors of the Republicans, but have been debating whether, after all, a vote which might be construed as in favor of Bryan would not be the chief of political sins. But now he has definitely taken himself out of the running. He has not done it voluntarily or gracefully, nor do we doubt that he would proclaim his ambition again if he saw any hope that it might be gratified. It has, however, been demonstrated to him that he is in a hopeless minority. With State after State turning against him, it is evident that he would cut a most pitiable figure in a contest for the nomination. So he withdraws betimes; and the disappearance of no candidate could mean so great and immediate an advantage to his party.

It is encouraging that the first Democratic Congressional convention to meet in New Jersey this year should have cut loose from Bryanism and adopted a platform which concerns the issues of the present day. It is the district which, under the new apportionment, is composed of Warren, Morris, and Union Counties, and the candidate is De Witt C. Flanagan. The platform "reaffirms," not the Kansas City, free-silver deliverance; but allegiance to the "true principles of the Democratic party as enunciated by Jefferson." It condemns the gerrymander of Congressional districts by the Republican Legislature; calls for a reform in the rules of the national House, so that it may become a representative body; and pledges resistance to the Ship-Subsidy Bill. The Philippine question is treated as not a sharp issue between parties at present, the resolutions affirming only that the situation "demands radical remedy," and pledging the nominee to "support such legislation as will bring about the betterment of these poor people," without any specification of what such legislation ought to be. Chief stress is laid upon the tariff question, and, among the declarations on this subject, we read:

"The tariff law that enables special industries to control both production and output of necessities of life, should be removed so as to enable open and fair competition; and it is overwhelmingly agreed by the American people that the reduction of the duty upon articles the manufacture and production of which is effectually monopolized, should be made." From first to last, the whole disastrous history of Democracy since 1896 is ignored, and the unspoken demand is for a new national leadership of the party.

One of the beneficial results of leadership by such men as ex-Gov. Pattison of Pennsylvania is shown in the efforts now making by the Democratic organization in Philadelphia to purge the voting lists of names illegally placed there. Before the ex-Governor became active in the local organization work at Philadelphia, the men who called themselves Democratic leaders in many of the districts were in fact Quay men in disguise. They were in many cases publicly known as "Quay Democrats." Mr. Pattison's first efforts to break up this system caused a great commotion, and he was finally obliged to resign the chairmanship of the City Committee, which he had assumed in order to reorganize the party machinery, if possible. But his interest did not end with his resignation, and, with the aid of a reorganization committee, he was able to begin the work of remodelling the organization. All this happened a year ago. Now, although a candidate for Governor, Mr. Pattison's powerful influence is still being used to break up the Democratic alliance with Quay in Philadelphia. The chief object of this alliance is the perpetuation of election frauds, by which thousands of illegal votes may be counted for the Republican candidates. If these frauds can be checked this year, one great obstacle to reform in Pennsylvania's political condition will have been removed.

Perhaps Judge Pennypacker of Pennsylvania counted the cost, and thoroughly understood what he was doing, when he consented to represent Virtue on the Quay ticket, but if not, his present experiences are likely to prove more or less uncomfortable. His latest trouble is the threat of the organization leaders of Allegheny County to drop his name from the head of the regular ticket there if he accepts the nomination which has been tendered him by the citizens' organization. This was formed for the purpose of destroying the rule in Pittsburgh of the State-house ring. The purpose of the citizens' movement is purely local. It is participated in by both Republicans and Democrats, and

is much the same combination which won a notable victory in the local election last February. It has been decided, for purposes of expediency, to place the Republican nominees for State offices at the head of the fusion anti-machine ticket, and the consent of Judge Pennypacker has therefore been sought. Just how the Republican candidate can refuse this endorsement it is difficult to see. In view of his relations with Quay, and Quay's present agreement with the Harrisburg leaders, it is also difficult to see how Judge Pennypacker can justify to his new intimates an acceptance which he can scarcely avoid.

Senator Hanna explains that it was all a joke. It was also the stupid reporters again. They have small sense of humor, and they are compelled to "condense" so much that it is no wonder they gave the country the impression that he said at Urbana, on August 6, he was going to resign from the Senate in order to wreak himself upon the labor movement. To remove all misunderstandings of that sort, the Senator now declares explicitly that he has "never given a thought" to leaving the Senate. He also takes occasion to contradict the rumor that he means to give up the chairmanship of the National Committee. All that he has he intends to hold, and he again strangely omits to state that he has no ambition for the Presidency. His friends are saying to him, as Rufus Choate said to Sumner when the latter was elected Senator from Massachusetts, "Glamis thou art, and Cawdor, and shalt be—?" And Macbeth Hanna smiles and does not say them nay, and turns with renewed ardor to his beloved workmen.

Michigan is one of the States where there is a growing sentiment in favor of trying the experiment of a primary election law, which impresses many people at first thought as promising entire relief from the evils of the caucus and convention system, and the Democrats are doubtless shrewd in making this one of their issues. Local self-government is another important plank, the Republicans of late years having been great offenders in ruling cities from the State capital. There is an earnest demand for equal taxation and equal assessments, and a vigorous condemnation of legislative extravagance, with an endorsement of the initiative and referendum, as well as of municipal ownership of public utilities. Barring these last two planks, which it considers "a harmless concession to the newer school of political faddists," the *Detroit Free Press*, the independent Democratic newspaper of Michigan, ventures the opinion that the platform expresses the sentiments of 90 per

cent. of the voters of the State, whether they are Democrats or Republicans, although it does not claim that the platform and ticket will command the support at the polls of even 50 per cent. of the voters. Whatever the result on election day, however, it will do the commonwealth a deal of good to have such vital questions talked over and thought about.

Whatever may be the final result of the agitation in the Northern States for the direct primary, it is almost certain that the primary system which has long been in vogue in some of the Southern States, will soon be the rule everywhere below the Potomac and the Ohio. This system is quite different from that known in the North as the direct primary. The candidates go about together, conducting joint debates at every stopping-place; and when the primary voting takes place, it has most of the characteristics of an actual election. As almost all of the white voters belong to the one party, there is little danger of manipulation across party lines. The formal election which comes later is an affair of much less importance than the primary. Louisiana is now in the midst of an agitation to secure the establishment of this system. Florida adopted it two years ago, and of the result Gov. Jennings said recently: "We would not go back to the convention system for anything. It does not cost any more to be a candidate for office under the primary plan than under the convention system. We have found that the primary, instead of closing the doors to the nomination of poor men, opens them the wider, and the poor men in Florida are the very people who proposed the primary and who carried on the campaign which resulted in its adoption." This answers one objection which has frequently been urged, so far as Florida's first trial of the experiment is concerned; but there are other States in that section where it has been longer in vogue, and where the complaint is that it is unduly expensive to candidates.

Mr. Roosevelt seems likely to make over the Supreme Court largely—especially if he should be given a second term. Justice Gray, who has just resigned, was the oldest member of that bench—seventy-four, last March; but Justice Shiras was seventy last January, Chief Justice Fuller will reach the same age next February, and Justice Harlan next June. Under the law allowing retirement upon a full-pay pension at seventy, after ten years of service, all three may withdraw within the next twelvemonth. Of the other five, Brown is sixty-six; Brewer, sixty-five; Peckham, sixty-three; McKenna, fifty-nine; and White, fifty-six. Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes, the present

Chief Justice of Massachusetts, will not reduce the average age so much as is desirable when a new man comes—indeed, he violates the rule which it has been sought to establish, that no man should be appointed who was past sixty; but heredity gives him promise of a vigorous old age. The substitution of one Massachusetts man for another does not disturb the balance of the court from the point of view of locality. New England still has one of the nine places; New York and Pennsylvania, one apiece—Peckham and Shiras; the Middle West, three—Fuller of Illinois, Brown of Michigan, and Brewer of Kansas; the upper and lower South, one apiece—Harlan of Kentucky and White of Louisiana; and the Pacific Coast, one—McKenna of California. Three are Democrats—Fuller, Peckham, and White; and no change in this division is made by putting one Republican in place of another. Fortunately, it has been long since the suggestion was heard that either section or party had any influence in the decisions of this court.

The news that in many instances the titles to the friars' lands in the Philippines have been transferred to secular companies, has reached the Vatican tardily, for the facts had been fully brought out in Gov. Taft's testimony before the Senate committee. It remains only to say that the Insular Government finds itself confronted by a state of things which arises whenever expropriation of the religious orders is attempted. Today, in Italy, and in other countries which have suppressed the convents and monasteries, the title to historic establishments is vested in private and ostensibly secular companies, while the monks remain in full occupation and control. Many of the religious schools in France have taken this means of evading the Associations Act. Of course this interposition of a company between the monastic chapter and the Government does not essentially affect the problem of suppression or expropriation. In fact, it often gives the Government a discretion, in applying the law, of which it is very glad to avail itself. Some delay is involved when it is necessary to prove in each separate case the equivocal nature of the ownership; but a body of nuns or monks cannot be concealed, and their presence is sufficient evidence against any establishment that the Government desires to close. Furthermore, it is often an advantage to be unable to apply wholesale and harshly a law which dispossesses an entire population of friars and sisters. In short, the evasion of proscriptive laws by the religious orders has seldom hampered a resolute government in taking any necessary measure of self-protection, while it has often relieved a radical government from something of religious

odium. Such will unquestionably be the case in the Philippines.

The provincial press of Cuba is filled with details of the increasing distress in the island. In Matanzas work is suspended on so many plantations that twenty-five thousand laborers are out of employment. From Pinar del Rio comes the report of dozens of the best and largest mills closed. In Las Villas the peasants are killing their cattle for food. So it goes. To add to the prevailing misery, the Cuban Company is laying off hands. In some towns the funds for public works are exhausted, and even street-cleaning is abandoned. Beggars are multiplied in field and village, and the people are everywhere giving their first and most anxious thought to the question, not how to make their new government work well, but how to escape starvation. This is the actual picture which we have to look upon in Cuba itself, at the same time that our bureau chiefs at Washington are putting out their smug report on "What We Have Done for Cuba." The beet-sugar Congressmen sniffed at the talk about threatened Cuban misery. Where was the evidence? Now they may see signs enough of suffering, but it is too late. They have done their work. They have saved their beets, but they have plunged Cuba into distress and despair.

The crop estimates issued on Monday by the Department of Agriculture, bring few surprises, confirming unofficial forecasts of a generally satisfactory harvest. Only the figures of the probable corn crop, which reach the enormous total of 2,561,490,000 bushels, call for comment. The partial failure of last year's crop naturally led to an increase in the acreage sown with this cereal of not less than 12,000,000 (approximately one-eighth), while an average condition of 86.5, as against 54 on August 1 a year ago, fully justifies an extraordinary forecast, which would be still larger but for a decline of 10.7 per cent. for the month of July in the fourteen Southern States. The wheat crop, at 646,611,000 bushels, is well above the average for several years past, though 74,600,000 below the record yield of 1901. Rye, barley, and oats are reported as in better condition than at this time last year. Further than to recall the general fallibility of prophecy, there is little occasion to question these optimistic estimates. We note that the figures for oats are withheld, because the crop is now being dealt in in the exchanges of the country. It seems to us that in this suppression the department shows a not wholly justifiable scruple. Surely even speculators are entitled to information from the Government experts, while unquestionably the publication of official estimates tends to reduce the speculative element in grain operations.

Mr. Chamberlain's Colonial Conference has ended, with failure written all over it. So abortive have the proceedings been that they are not even to be published. All that Parliament and the public are to get is the very Platonic resolutions adopted, which amount to little more than the expression of a pious regret that it is not possible to do anything. Mr. Chamberlain had begun to forecast these meagre results in his speeches. In his address to the London Grocers the other day, he gravely put the "educative influence" of the Conference above its "substantial results." He is quite right; and one of the persons to profit most by the education is the Colonial Secretary. He has learned that the great English colonies are self-governing democracies, which will stand up for their own interests and their own peaceful development, in the face of all Imperial blandishments. The existence of laws of trade, also, and the calm strength of the teachings of political economy, which he had sneered at as "pedantry," have been taught him in this Colonial school. Mr. Chamberlain's sobering and chastening, through all this process, have been, in fact, so marked that we should be quite willing, for our part, to class them among the "substantial results" of the Conference.

It would seem highly probable that one result of the colonial negotiations in London will be the establishment of a Canadian line of fast steamers. The positive announcements already made on this subject are doubtless premature; but, with the two Governments so deeply interested, and with the Parliamentary committee likely to recommend action, it appears almost certain that something will be done. No general system of shipping subsidies is in contemplation. That was condemned, at the Parliamentary hearing, by both commercial and military experts. Mr. Pirrie of Harland & Wolff forcibly argued that an indiscriminate subsidy led to inefficiency, and that unless the builders and owners of ships made the needs of trade the chief consideration, failure was destined. Admiral Beresford, for the navy, said that it would be tactical folly for England to enter upon a subsidizing policy, since it would be certain to involve Great Britain in a war of tariffs and bounties with the United States and Germany and France and Russia. Such a course, said the bluff sailor, "would be madness." Yet he was perfectly willing to endorse the plan of giving extra postal pay to a few 22-knot steamers from Canada, which might be used as auxiliary cruisers in case of war, as may the White Star boats which Mr. Morgan has bought, but which he has offered to put in the same way at the disposal of the Admiralty.

Canada's contribution to the plan must be, of course, in the nature of a direct

subsidy, or guarantee. Her motives are different from those of the English Admiralty. It is not the exigency of war that she has in mind so much as the needs of peace. Her rich farming lands of the Northwest she wishes to develop. The Canadian Pacific is as keen as the managers of the American steamship and railway combination to see the advantage of through rates under a single control from the Manitoba grain fields to the Liverpool docks. Accordingly, the Canadian railroad authorities are hot for a Government grant in aid. An offer of \$750,000 a year has been, in fact, already made by the Canadian Government, but the shipping people say it is too small. They assert that \$2,000,000 a year is necessary, though, as Senator Drummond of Montreal told the Committee of the House of Commons, if it were now proposed to give him \$1,750,000 a year, "I might be tempted." With such plans advocated and such motives operating in Canada and England, it is apparent that the chances of the ultimate establishment of such a fast service are very good.

It was fully expected that Mr. Balfour would put the Education Bill over to the fall, after having secured the passage of the more vital clauses—those which lodge control in the county and municipal councils, and those which assure to the denominational schools now to be supported by the rates a two-thirds majority of denominational managers. Although the Liberal opposition bears most heavily upon the non-popular and non-elective character of the educational authority, the real grievance against the bill is a religious one. Under the law as it now stands, there will be 8,000 parishes in England and Wales in which the only school is that of the Church of England. These so-called "voluntary" (*Anglicæ*, private) schools remain largely under their old management, and, in the case of the 8,000 mentioned, will be the only public primary schools in their neighborhood. Naturally, Nonconformists are reluctant to send their children to a "Church" school which by a scratch of the pen has become a public school; quite as naturally, these "chapel people" object to paying taxes for what was and is the parson's school. Various suggestions for compromise have been made. That of allowing all the religious denominations to give instruction at stated times is in the line of our own Faribault system and the Manitoba plan, but it is evidently easier to apply such a method in a school which admits all comers without prejudice than in one which is committed to a particular form of faith. This arrangement is urged by so prominent an Anglican as Bishop Hereford. To one who does not know the rural conditions of England, the whole quarrel looks pettier than it is. Denominationalism is deeply entrenched in the life of the peo-

ple. All English education bills are likely to be bad as long as public education must adjust itself to denominational convictions.

King Edward's coronation on Saturday had something of the air of a narrowly escaped tragedy; yet the personal congratulations which he received were surely all the heartier for that. Meanwhile, the real rulers of England appear in the Cabinet, whose partial reconstruction is now announced. The new names are very much what was expected, and represent rather the humdrum order of statesmanship. The appointment of Mr. Ritchie to the Exchequer is that of a safe man whose name, if it connotes nothing brilliant, at least arouses no apprehensions. His task will be a thankless one, as the budget is unpopular even with his own party; but then, the Liberals will tell him, he may not need to remain long in an onerous office. The promotion of Mr. Chamberlain's son is a testimony to the dominant influence of the Colonial Secretary, and lends point to the fling of that unreconciled Tory, Mr. Bowles, that, whereas the old Cabinet was a single family, the new one is to illustrate the principle of the double family.

The gift of the Dutuit collection to the city of Paris is an example of personal benefaction which will recall to New Yorkers the gathering of the Marquand collection for the Metropolitan Museum, and the piety with which the descendants of Peter Cooper have fostered and enlarged the ideals which presided over his foundation of Cooper Union. For years the entire Dutuit family gave themselves to the collecting of the rarest objects of art, keeping ever before themselves the fact that they were purchasing for exhibition in perpetuity, and so must admit no object of questionable or merely ephemeral value. To this end the brothers Dutuit and their only sister gave unsparingly of their fortune and of their time. The idea grew, it is said, out of the disappointment of Auguste Dutuit's ambition as a painter. Soon recognizing, in Couture's atelier, that he lacked original talent, he persuaded his brother and sister to join him in permanently associating the family name with the great art of the past. They gladly seconded his enthusiasm, and the children of the Marseilles docker gradually built up a collection worthy of the city of Paris. Between the generosity which merely leaves great sums for good works, and that which gives also the labor of a lifetime to framing its benefaction solidly and well, there is no comparison. There is no more pleasing symptom of the times than the disposition signally illustrated in the case of the Dutuit family—to execute as well as to endow works of beneficence.

THE TARIFF WILL NOT DOWN.

Secretary Shaw's opening speech of the Vermont campaign on August 5 reads, in those parts of it which touched upon the tariff, as if he thought his Green Mountain hearers were green indeed. Such a medley of inaccurate history, bad logic, and short-sighted policy can be defended only on the plea which Luther irreverently used in connection with what he thought an unsound argument in one of St. Paul's epistles. It was "good enough for the Galatians," said the audacious Reformer; and it is "good enough for the Vermonters," Secretary Shaw may be imagined saying of his tariff address. Certainly, we should not advise him to try it on the Republicans of Iowa or Minnesota, who have got far beyond such a futile prophesying of smooth things about trusting the party to be "wise," and do what is "best" for the country.

To begin with Mr. Shaw's rather surprising history, he tells us that in 1882 the Republican party appointed a commission to consider the tariff question, and that, "in obedience to its suggestions," the tariff was revised in 1883. Yet, he says, the people were not satisfied, and incontinently turned to and elected a Democratic President in 1884. This quite takes away one's breath; the truth being, of course, that the commission recommended a general reduction of protective duties, but that Congress displayed its "obedience" by increasing them! This fact would help the Secretary to understand what is apparently a mystery to him—namely, why "this revision did not satisfy the people."

What he is most positive about, however, is that nothing the Republican party could do in the way of tariff revision would "satisfy our opponents." But we thought the great object of political parties was to satisfy the people and their own members. Mr. Shaw is very strong on the folly of making any "concession to Democratic clamor." But the country has been hearing a good deal of Republican clamor from the Secretary's own State. Does he propose to concede nothing to that? Will he tell the Republicans of Minnesota and Wisconsin and Michigan, as he did those of Vermont, that this is no time to talk of revising the tariff?

The Secretary's attitude seems to be that of admitting the evil while refusing the remedy. He does not deny that there are "inaccuracies and inequalities" in the present tariff. Valiantly he affirms that the Republican party "never attempts to defend" a demonstrably unfair tariff schedule. No, it does not defend it, but simply maintains it. It falls back on the impotent position taken by Secretary Shaw. He says, in effect, and almost in words: "I confess that many of the existing duties ought to be modified. But if we should succeed in changing or repealing some of the worst ones,

there would remain countless others nearly as bad. And if we pull out one unjust schedule, its beneficiaries threaten to tumble the whole edifice down about our ears. So I ask you, is it wise to talk about doing anything at this time?" Surely, no enemy of the Republican party ever accused it of being more imbecile, more helplessly tied hand and foot and delivered over to a combination of plunderers, than Mr. Shaw does, by fair implication, when he acknowledges that it has put wicked tariff laws on the statute-book, but is powerless to remove them.

Let such timid souls as the Secretary deprecate the agitation for tariff reform as they may, the movement is afoot, the Republicans of the Northwest are up, the Democrats will force the fighting, the people are thinking and talking of little else than the flagrant injustices of the tariff and its inexcusable sheltering of monopoly; so that the conflict is irrepressible. The complaint is precise. The remedy demanded is definite. It is not one of those questions of vague discontent or social unrest which are the nightmare of statesmen because it is so difficult to deal with them. Specific allegations are made. "Your tariff on cattle and beef products," declared the National Association of Retail Butchers in Chicago the other day, "aids the odious Beef Trust, and we want you to reform that duty altogether." So in those Western States where the tariff question is most aflame, it is not indefinite outcry that we hear, but clear-cut and exact descriptions of what is wrong and what should be done to set it right. The Western Republicans strike their hands upon the tariff and boldly say, "Thou ailest here and here." In Minnesota, for example, the chief demand is for the reduction of the lumber duties. The Republicans of that State know what hurts them. So unmistakably have they made their wishes known that Congressman Tawney, seeking renomination in the First District, has been forced to pledge himself to "work for a reduction of duties, including the duty on lumber." He even went so far as to promise flatly that, "if the Republicans control the Fifty-eighth Congress, there will be a revision of the tariff." Certainly there will be, if the Democrats control it. Tariff reform, therefore, must be put down as one of the certainties of the near future.

In the growing demand for it, the Republican managers will see, if they are wise, not, as Secretary Shaw seems to, a thing to pooh-pooh or take fright at, but a great opportunity to be embraced. "Political skill," said Frederick the Great, "consists rather in taking advantage of favorable circumstances than in preparing them in advance." The occasion is propitious for the formulation of a definite tariff policy by the Republicans. To remove every needless duty, to cut off every schedule which shelters a

Trust—that is a programme reduced to its simplest terms. With less than that the American people will not be satisfied. Is there enough courage, enough true statesmanship, in the Republican party to take up this burning question, and settle it on grounds of justice? If not, the people will throw away so useless an instrument, and select or create another that is capable of executing the popular will.

NEW CUBAN QUESTIONS.

We see no occasion for rash jumping to conclusions in connection with the proposed Cuban loan of \$35,000,000. It is not yet authorized. When it is, and if it is, there will be still six months to wait before it is floated (if it can be floated at all on the terms proposed), and still further delay before it can be ascertained whether the loan is, in fact, in violation of that one of the Platt amendments which forbids the Cuban Government to incur a debt too heavy for the Island revenues to carry. It seems to us, therefore, that the newspaper jurists who have already decided that the Cubans are caught in the act of trampling upon their Constitution, and that we shall have to intervene, are running before they are sent.

Nor can we accept, much as we should like to, the theory of a dark conspiracy behind the project of a Cuban loan. It is thrilling, of course, to hear of secret plotters and mysterious syndicates and disguised agents, all engaged in a subtle complot to force Cuban annexation; but when a simple and natural explanation lies in plain sight, we are prosaically compelled to prefer it to the fairy stories. There seems to be, after all, no great mystery about this loan proposed by the Cubans. They need the money. We hope no American will question that first principle of human conduct. Cuban agriculture is prostrate, thanks to we know whom, and the Government asks for \$4,000,000 to loan to the planters, to help them tide over their evil day. It has always been expected that funds would have to be found to pay the Cuban army, to take up the Cuban bonds that have been recognized as lawfully issued for value received, and to cover some other expenses of the struggle for independence. Here is reason enough for a loan, without invoking conspirators and fellows in the cellarage. We may be all wrong about this, and certainly it is an awful pity not to be able to credit this engaging and complicated romance about an annexationist conspiracy; but we are bound to say that the explanation of the matter given in the Cuban Congress and the Cuban press seems to account for everything, without any of these cloaked schemers in the background saying "Hist!" and "Aha!"

One question that our glib journalistic legists do not appear to have considered

at all is, how the United States is to intervene in this affair of the loan. Why, it is hastily said, the loan is in violation of the Platt amendment, and the Platt amendment is now an integral part of the Cuban Constitution; of course it is our right to step in and prevent the Cubans from violating their own Constitution. But we have an obstinate doubt or two. Who is to decide whether the Cuban Constitution is violated? It seems to be thought that any newspaper correspondent in Havana can settle the thing by telegraph. If not, then Minister Squires appears to be counted upon to inform us, or Secretary Shaw, or Assistant-Secretary Hill, or any stray Congressman that turns up in Washington, or the man in the street, or the inner consciousness—everybody or anybody. Unfortunately for all these ready reasoners, however, the Cuban Constitution itself explicitly lays down the method of deciding the matter in question. In the section treating of the "Judicial Power," it is expressly stated that the Cuban Supreme Court shall have power, among other things, "to decide upon the Constitutionality of laws, decrees, and rules, when a controversy may arise upon such points" (Title X, Art. 83). This, it is clear, is copied from American practice. Under it, we can easily see, it would be just as impertinent for Minister Squires, or any outsider, to say that a given Cuban law was unconstitutional, as for the English Ambassador to notify his Government that the Oleomargarine Bill was in violation of the Constitution of the United States. There are courts in Cuba. Legal controversies must go before their judges, who may conceivably differ from or even overrule their brethren of the American press.

That we have a perfectly legitimate interest in all that is going on in Cuba, as well as a direct responsibility for it, we do not dream of disputing. If there is commercial distress in the island, we know at whose door the guilt must be laid. If the embarrassed Government of the young republic finds itself in thickening difficulties, and scarcely knows which way to turn, that fact is but one reproach more to this country. Had we hearkened to our own President, these troubles had not befallen our wards in Cuba. And what we say now is that our own grievous faults in this whole business should make us exceedingly wary and patient in all our future dealings with the island. We regret to observe an assumption, in some quarters, of a high moral tone in lecturing Cuba as to her duty to keep all her pledges, and not to do anything so wicked as to levy high tariff taxes on our exports. Satan rebuking sin would be a miracle of consistency compared with Americans who should turn upon the Cubans in such a way. We are unquestionably under a serious and continuing obligation as re-

gards Cuba; but in view of our own shortcomings, our first duty is to be tolerant and hopeful, instead of exacting and distrustful, and to go out of our way to aid the struggling Government of our own creation, instead of picking a quarrel with it.

THE MICHIGAN CAMPAIGN.

Senator James McMillan of Michigan, who died suddenly on Sunday, belonged to that class of rich men in public life whom it is fashionable to sneer at. Until the death of his colleague, Francis B. Stockbridge, in 1894, both of his State's seats in the upper branch of Congress were filled for a number of years by men of great wealth. Their opponents used to ridicule them as men who would have cut no figure in politics except for their money. Mr. McMillan was undoubtedly much helped in the attainment of his political ambitions by his money, but he appears to have been the sort of man who would have forced his way to the front if he had devoted himself to law instead of business, when he was a young man, and become a leader at the bar instead of on the exchange. He was not an orator, but he was a man of excellent sense, and his public spirit was attested by a long list of notable gifts to the city of Detroit, the State University, and other institutions. He became chairman of the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia, and the national capital profited greatly by his business acumen and breadth of view. He deserves great credit for having lent all the weight of his powerful influence to the development of that elaborate and far-sighted scheme for the improvement of Washington which now seems certain ultimately to be carried out. For the help which he gave to this monumental work the Senator will long be remembered by public-spirited residents of the city.

His death emphasizes the misfortune of the system under which the choice of a United States Senator must be made by the Legislature. His third term began in March, 1901. The term of his colleague, Burrows, runs until March, 1905. Under ordinary conditions, no member of the Legislature to be chosen in November would have anything to do with questions of national politics. Meanwhile there are great questions of State policy which press for settlement. The recent Democratic convention devoted its platform entirely to these issues, and the Republicans were just beginning to find that they must meet their opponents on this field. Last Saturday it looked as though Michigan might present the long-sought spectacle of a people choosing their Governor and members of the Legislature primarily with reference to their attitude towards questions concerning the commonwealth

with which they would have to deal. All this is changed by Mr. McMillan's death. The Governor will appoint a temporary successor, but his tenure will last only until the new Legislature which will meet early in January makes its choice. The most important question as to every candidate of the Legislature therefore becomes—not how he stands about one or another reform which is needed in the government of the State, but whether he will support a Republican or a Democrat for the United States Senate. The Republican who may have been inclined to vote for a Democratic member on local issues will now feel that he must stand by the nominee of his own party in order that it may control the Senatorship for more than four years. The interests of the State and the district, the personal characters of the rival candidates for the Legislature—all those considerations which ought to govern the choice of a member—instantly disappear as elements in the contest, and voters are constrained to vote for State legislators solely according to their views on national politics.

The agitation for the election of Senators by popular vote should profit by this striking illustration of how the old system operates to the disadvantage of the State. Elections are generally held biennially, which means that two Legislatures out of every three must be chosen primarily with reference to the choice of a United States Senator. The present incident in Michigan shows the constant possibility that even the one chance in three to consider the interests of the State may be lost by the accident of death or resignation. Moreover, the politicians are always seeking to control the nomination of legislators in an "off year" with a view to the Senatorial election, because men chosen at that time may be reelected for the session when the Federal office is to be disposed of. The influence of the Senatorship is thus always present, in greater or less degree.

The election of Senators by popular vote might or might not give us better Senators, but one thing it would certainly do: it would enable us to choose members of the Legislature solely with reference to their fitness to discharge the duties properly attaching to their office. That is one argument for the change which the defenders of the existing system cannot answer.

COST OF THE NEW YORK STATE GOVERNMENT.

Discussion of the State finances by the politicians is apt to proceed with some embarrassments, owing to the necessity felt by adherents of each party of proving that their organization is the only one possessing the will and the ability to conduct the Government skillfully and economically. These embarrassments have been evident on both

sides in the partisan discussion this year about the financial condition of the State. Thus, the Democratic managers, in their zeal to show that the present Republican Administration is spending the people's money too lavishly, permitted themselves to make charges which a moment's examination proved to be absurd—as, for instance, the wholly unwarranted assertion that a way had been prepared by which \$6,000,000 could be borrowed to meet an expected deficit.

The Republican managers, also, have not been free from overstatement and the vice of biased selection in the use of statistics. Dwelling upon the practical abolition of the direct State tax, for example, is no answer at all to the charge of extravagance, since there is no more excuse for squandering the State's money when it comes from indirect sources than there would be if it were the result of direct taxation. Indeed, it ought not to be forgotten that, not many years ago, it was the fashion among Republicans to ascribe the increase in the State expenditures, beginning in the early eighties and continuing steadily until the high-water mark was reached in 1897, to the introduction of a system of indirect taxation.

Nor was the selection of the year 1893 as the basis for Republican comparisons a proceeding which could be regarded as wholly disinterested. To be sure, 1893 was the last year in which the Democrats controlled both the Legislature and the Governorship, but it was also the year when the tax rate was higher than in any previous year of Democratic administration—a condition due principally to the fact that the first considerable appropriation, \$1,300,000, was then made for the State care of the insane. Fortunately, it is not necessary to follow partisan leading-strings in this discussion.

A glance at the totals of the appropriations for the last twenty years shows that the State expenditures have more than doubled since 1882, and that over two-thirds of this increase has taken place within the last decade. The total appropriations, less refunds, in 1882 were \$10,625,129; in 1892, \$13,540,897; and in 1902, \$21,231,682. In 1897 the total appropriations were \$26,962,705, the highest in the history of the State. This increase was only partly accounted for by an expenditure of \$6,884,436 on the canals. Since 1897 there has been a tendency to diminish expenditures, broken only by the year 1900, when there was a slight increase over the previous year. The population of the State in practically the same period increased from 5,082,871 in 1880 to 7,268,894 in 1900. The expenditures in 1882 were approximately \$2.09 per capita; in 1892, \$2.41; and in 1897, \$3.94; while in 1902 the per capita expenditure is about \$2.81.

These are the bald facts, but crude

appearances are never so misleading as in discussions involving finance. The question is, of course, whether or not the State has run into useless expenditures, and whether or not it has undertaken to do more than it can afford to do. To answer this question it is necessary to examine the various causes of the increases shown in the yearly figures of appropriations. First and foremost of these is the adoption of the system of State care of the insane. This was enacted into law in 1890, but the first large appropriation from State funds was not made until 1893. A steady increase in this item of expenditure followed, from \$1,346,019 in 1893 to \$5,544,891 in 1900, when the highest point was reached. The amount for 1901 was more than a million dollars less, \$4,345,382, and the appropriations for this purpose for the current year show a continued decrease, being only \$4,175,573. In considering this addition to the State's expenses it must be remembered that the care of the insane was a charge on the taxpayers as completely before as after the adoption of State care. The unfortunates were scattered about in county poorhouses and asylums, and it is well-nigh impossible to estimate what it cost to support them, though it is certain that their condition in some counties was a disgrace to the State. No one now questions the wisdom of the change to State care. Undoubtedly there were some extravagances at first. In 1897 the per capita cost of maintenance in the State asylums was \$195. In 1901 this had been cut down to \$167. Whether the changes in the government of the institutions brought about by the legislation of this year will still further reduce the per-capita cost is, of course, for the future to say. In the opinion of the Charities Aid Association, these rates "cannot be continued without serious injury to the interests of the insane, much less should there be a reduction."

Another source of increase has been the improvement in our common-school system, and the new expenditures for higher education through free academies and training-schools. In 1892 the State's common-school bill was \$3,934,700; this year it is \$4,436,150, an increase partly due to a more liberal treatment of the rural districts. In the year 1897, when expenditures were at their highest, the common-school appropriation was but \$4,090,500. In 1892, less than \$200,000 was spent in aid of academies, high schools, etc.; this year \$553,402 has been appropriated for such purposes. All this has added to the total of the State's expenses, but has in many cases lifted a burden from the shoulders of local taxpayers, as well as increased the scope and availability of our educational facilities.

Other items of increased expenditure with which no fault can be found have been alluded to. Thus, the expenses of

the Legislature, which were \$521,148 in 1892, and \$608,711 this year, were increased by the provisions of the new Constitution, which added fifty members, whose salaries aggregate \$75,000, exclusive of mileage. The amount for this year, by the way, shows a saving of about \$20,000, as compared with 1901, due to the shortness of the last session. So, in the matter of roads, for which nothing was spent in 1892 and no State system adopted in 1897, there is an appropriation of \$897,568 this year. The increased cost of the judiciary, which was \$530,800 in 1892 and is \$1,074,132 in 1902, is due also to Constitutional provisions.

Meanwhile there have been considerable savings since 1897 in the administrative departments of the State Government. In his report for 1897 Comptroller Roberts showed that thirty-six new departments and commissions had been established since 1880, and that these were costing the State \$6,884,713 per year. Many of these commissions have now been abolished and some others consolidated, so that in 1901 the expenditures for the State departments and commissions were under \$3,000,000—a most satisfactory showing. There were further consolidations by the Legislature this year, which will materially reduce the cost for this and subsequent years.

Altogether, it seems fair to conclude from these figures that, while the State's expenditures have largely increased—in fact, more rapidly than its population—its proper and praiseworthy activities have increased in a corresponding measure. If the first years of these expanding interests were marked by a tendency toward extravagance, that tendency seems to have been checked, in a measure at least, though it is far from certain that further economies in the administration of bureaus and commissions may not prove possible and wise. The centralizing of power and responsibility in the State Government has been clearly in the trend of recent events. The cost of administering functions previously left to the counties has not necessarily increased with State control, but it has become more evident. And it must be added that more businesslike methods and better results have certainly followed.

THE CHARTERS OF CITIES.

Within a few days the Legislature of Ohio, convened in extraordinary session by the Governor, will enter upon a most interesting and important task, that of preparing a code for the government of Ohio cities. The preparation of the code is made immediately necessary by a decision of the State Supreme Court, practically declaring invalid the city charters throughout the State. The court, in effect, decided that the classification under which the city govern-

ments are operating is contrary to the Constitution, which requires that "the Legislature shall pass general laws" for the government of cities. The classification in question was general in form, but so expressed that particular cities were indicated, and this the Supreme Court finally refuses longer to sanction.

The task which the Legislature has before it is, of course, of the utmost importance to Ohio, but it possesses also an extreme interest for students of the municipal problem elsewhere. The eyes of municipal reformers will turn toward Columbus with a good deal of eagerness, and perhaps with some anxiety, during the weeks which follow the assembling of the lawmakers. They well know that the attention which has been given to municipal problems during the last decade has not all been in vain. Principles of municipal administration have been evolved which are no longer mere theories; they are established. In framing the fundamental law for the cities of Ohio, will the Legislature take these principles into account, or will it disregard them? Will the Legislature so act that the municipal code which it produces may register the advance which has been made in the direction of good government for cities, or must "politics" play the chief part during the session, and the result be some municipal hodgepodge through which the "control" of the cities will be kept by the party in power in the State, without reference to the wishes of local taxpayers and voters?

One of the principles which may be described as established is the principle of home rule. It is fair to describe it as established because, though it is violated perhaps as often as it is observed, no party dares to oppose it as a principle, and all, in fact, proclaim their adherence to it. The Ohio Legislature has a chance to institute real home rule in the cities of that State. A charter ought to be to a city, somewhat at least, as a Constitution is to a State or a nation. It ought to contain the fundamental law, and it ought not to be subject to constant change at the whim of some party or individual. This is the modern idea of a city charter, and it is the right one. The Legislature cannot, of course, of itself prevent the amendment or repeal of its work by subsequent legislatures; but, if it succeeds in drawing up a municipal code based upon modern principles, the Legislature may with much force appeal to the people to prevent unwarranted changes without due process. The people of California are about to vote on a Constitutional amendment providing that amendments to home-rule charters must be submitted to a popular vote in the localities affected, if such submission is petitioned for by 15 per cent. of the qualified voters of such localities.

Another principle of municipal administration which can be said to bear the

sanction of common acceptance, is that of responsibility concentrated in the municipal head, the Mayor. This principle is pretty clearly outlined in the present charter of Cleveland, which for other reasons has been declared invalid. The Cleveland system is one of bureau heads appointed and removable by the Mayor, and constituting his "cabinet," as it is called. This feature, by the way, gave the Cleveland system the name of "Federal plan," by which it is commonly known. These bureau heads are directly responsible to the Mayor, and he is responsible for them to the people. In this particular the Cleveland charter has been regarded as particularly well drawn and modern, and it would be a source of great regret if a less enlightened system should now be adopted.

Prodded by Mayor Tom L. Johnson of Cleveland and some others, the Ohio Legislature may be expected to give close heed to the rules incorporated in the municipal code relating to the granting of franchises. Here, too, a certain standard has been set which the legislators cannot avoid without confessing a disregard of the best and most enlightened thought on the subject. Formerly, cities were empowered to give away franchises as they chose. A charter which does not now place a restriction on the granting of franchises, requiring a fixed compensation and naming a term of years at the expiration of which the franchise must terminate, be renewed, or be readjusted, would be an anachronism. This is a matter about which the people have shown that they feel most strongly, and in many cities it has furnished the chief interest through which good citizens have been aroused to the performance of their civic duties. In Chicago, for instance, an attempt to renew expiring street-railway and other franchises in 1897 by vote of the Legislature awakened the citizens to such an extent that, under the lead of the Voters' Municipal League, they have practically assured protection of the people's rights in public franchises, as a result of long and hard endeavor, culminating in the election of a reform City Council at the last election. Even to this day, men who, as members of the Legislature, voted for the obnoxious franchise grabs of 1897, are practically excluded from public office in Illinois.

These are some of the standards which have been set, and which the Ohio Legislature will disregard at its peril. Probably the greatest of them is the principle of home rule, for this could hardly exist without bringing the others into active being. If the Legislature can produce a fundamental law for cities in keeping with modern standards, and then, by Constitutional amendment or otherwise, provide a sure protection against "ripper" legislation in the future, it will be of the greatest benefit to the cause of municipal reform throughout the country.

MR. LAWSON AND THE AMERICA'S CUP.

Mr. Thomas W. Lawson's personal grievance against the New York Yacht Club, as set forth in his book, 'The Lawson History of the America's Cup,' would hardly concern us, much less his clumsy and violent satire, were it not that the whole matter of the custody of the America's Cup is involved in this controversy, and that the publication of Mr. Lawson's manifesto gives the New York Yacht Club a chance at once to rebuke indirectly an antagonist who is unworthy of direct attention, and to recede from an untenable and unsportsmanlike position.

It will be recalled that, when Mr. Lawson wished to enter the *Independence* for the trial races, the appropriate committee of the New York Yacht Club suggested that he go through the form of chartering his boat to a member of the club, and refused to accept her entry, upon any other terms. The club took the plausible ground that, since it was solely responsible for the conduct of the Cup races, it would admit only yachts over which its authority was complete—that is, those which flew its flag. Unquestionably, this decision was arrived at rather as a means of getting rid of Mr. Lawson's application than as a precedent for the future policy of the club; but, for whatever cause, the club unluckily took the position that only its own members might defend the America's Cup. This was very like bailing out the Lower Bay to drown Mr. Lawson—an unwarrantable disturbance of historic hydrography, however laudable the end in view.

How indefensible this requirement of membership in a particular club is, will appear when one examines the cases which may well arise. Suppose that a member of the Eastern, the Larchmont, or the Atlantic Yacht Club should offer, for the defence of the America's Cup, a boat faster than any in the New York squadron. Suppose that his standing as a gentleman and a sportsman were unexceptionable; what would be the position of the New York Yacht Club, either in refusing his entry, or in stipulating that he seek its membership or charter his boat to a member? Sailing under its auspices, such a yachtsman would, as a matter of courtesy, naturally wish to be in close relations with the club; but, on the other hand, it might be equally well maintained that the club was under every obligation to show so good a yachtsman every possible hospitality. Suppose, again, the great unlikelihood that Sir Thomas Lipton or some more fortunate challenger "lifts the cup." In a moment the New York Yacht Club would have no better standing as a challenger than the smallest American, Belgian, French, or Italian yacht club. It is absurd to guard the defence with this jealousy when the right

to challenge is free to all clubs which have an ocean course. It is even more unfortunate to appear to regard membership in the New York Yacht Club and good standing among American yachtsmen as identical. It is impossible that any such snobbishness can have been intended; mere suspicion of it cannot now too scrupulously be avoided.

Under the deed of gift of the *America's* cup, we believe that the New York Yacht Club has absolutely no warrant for restricting the defence of the cup to its own members. Under the rules of common sense and the unwritten laws of sportsmanship, it has undoubtedly every right to pass on the personal qualifications of a defender of the cup. While the question of qualification should seldom arise—one may generally assume that the possessor of a famous racing yacht will turn out to be a gentleman—yet the ability to build and maintain a ninety-footer by no means guarantees her owner from infirmities of temper and deficiencies in breeding which make it out of the question for him to take part in a great international event. The English have been unlucky enough to send us Lord Dunraven. Now imagine what the scandal would have been if the author of 'The Lawson History of the *America's* Cup' had been the defender in that ill-omened year. To exercise such a right of exclusion is individious, but it is a plain duty on the part of those who keep not only an ugly bit of plate, but the honor of American yachting. If the club had squarely refused Mr. Lawson on these grounds, public opinion would have borne it out. On quite impersonal grounds, too, he hastened to prove his ineligibility. The man who will race a waterlogged and almost foundering boat, rather than withdraw and ask for postponement, evinces pertinacity, but hardly sportsmanship. At any rate, he shows himself fatally lacking in the qualities of judgment which a defender of the cup must possess.

But it is to the future that we must look. Nothing in the deed of gift prevents the club from exercising absolute authority in passing upon the qualifications of all who would defend the cup. It must assume, as do all organizations which hold open races, that the contestants are gentlemen, and it should require no further guarantee of good conduct than the right to place on board of the defender—as it does on board of the challenger—a member to represent its interests and authority. If the club should, by resolution or otherwise, simply assert this right of scrutiny, it would remove from Mr. Lawson's case the last vestige of undue importance; it would set right the oldest and most prominent of our yacht clubs before a number of newer organizations which, doing less for yachting as a luxury, possibly do more for it as a sport. Most important of all, it would show to the public generally that

the New York Yacht Club does not reserve all its fair play for foreigners, but regards its own recognized leadership as an argument for generous recognition and encouragement of good yachtsmen, whatever burgee they fly.

A RAND IN LUSITANIA.

OPORTO, June, 1902.

Among the several interesting towns to be visited in the small kingdom of Portugal is Thomar, about ninety miles north of Lisbon, on the main line of the railway to Coimbra. All the guide-books, as well as works of travel or books on Lusitanian art, dwell very properly on the exceptional opportunity afforded in its splendid *Convento de Christo* for examining some of the leading phases of Portuguese architecture comparatively. Few contrasts, indeed, are more significant and suggestive than may be seen in the immediate juxtaposition of the polygonal Chapel of the Templars with the gorgeous "Manoelino" edifice which, in spite of French vandalism, still preserves the memory of Prince Henry the Navigator and the golden days of the Order of Christ, when both Africa and South America seemed secured to the possession of Portugal. It is not, however, with these splendors, or with historical impressions, that I wish to deal; my present purpose is to tell, as briefly and simply as possible, what may introduce into this quiet town an element of modern activity greater still than that of its staring red-tiled cotton-mill, whose chimneys and smoke combine to disfigure the olive-dotted valley below.

After four charming days in Coimbra, chiefly divided between the university library and the society of professors who cling to their academic tradition of greeting a foreign confrère, a short railway journey landed me at the station of Payalvo some hours after the departure of the last omnibus to the town, about six miles distant. Promptly encircled by a small cohort of ragged young savages, I was half-articulate striving to reduce the extortionate charge for a country-cart, when a pleasant voice said behind me, "You speak English, don't you, sir?" The speaker at once helped to clear the situation by sharing the expense of the vehicle, and informed me that he was one of the group of Boer prisoners temporarily domiciled in Thomar, and only recently freed from strict military supervision by the declaration of peace. I am certain that Mr. Philip Pienaar, author of 'With Steyn and De Wet,' will permit me to unite with my appreciation of his excellent English an equally sincere expression of thanks for the courtesies shown me by himself and his companions in exile. It seemed strange to find one's self discussing Imperialism, South Africa, and the conduct of the war, as the rickety cart jolted us along the ribbon-like road, white in the intense moonlight of that hard Peninsular sky, and past

"The hills over-smoked behind by the faint-gray olive-trees."

My companion for the time also proved an accomplished and friendly guide to the antiquities of Thomar on the following day. Through his means I was likewise introduced to several members of the staff of Gen. Pienaar, to whom quarters were appointed in the secularized *Convento de*

Christo by the Portuguese Government after the transportation of these refugees from Lourenço Marquez. Their treatment appears to have been without reproach. A few days later, in Alcobaça, I visited, with some reluctance, the lodgings of about three hundred of the rank and file, concerning whom a different tale might perhaps be told, for these less notable personages were necessarily submitted to the huddling promiscuity of the *chambree*.

Mr. P. S. Naudé, an ex-field cornet of the staff, then proffered me an invitation to join himself and his friends on an expedition to a recently reopened gold mine, to which their attention had been drawn by the gossip of the countryside, and the exploration of which had proved a welcome relief during many weeks of exiled inactivity. It must be said that the events of the last few years have turned many Boers into potential or actual gold-finders; and the possibilities of great treasures, ignored by the easy-going Portuguese, have thus been rediscovered by a small band of exiles, whose own original riches have now passed into other and more powerful hands. The deposits in question, to which access is easy by means of a fine carriage-road running to within a few hundred yards of the old shaft, have indeed long been known. Local tradition declares them to have been operated in turn by the Romans, the Moors, and the Portuguese themselves, some two hundred years ago.

The distance from the town of Thomar is, roughly speaking, six miles. It was a gloriously sunny day, the 18th of June, when we drove out through the admirably cultivated country, and, shortly after getting out of the carriage, stopped to examine the outcrop of auriferous reef which had first convinced my companions, even before they had seen the old mine, that gold is probably lying here in amazingly paying quantities. The recognition of this of course demands a practised eye. The first visible outcrop, however, which is some eight inches thick, and is unquestionably gold-bearing quartz, is at least four hundred yards distant from the mine, while the inclination and other marks indicate to the expert that the deposit is continuous. Nay, more; according to the Transvaalers, further indications would tend to show that here, as in South Africa, corresponding conditions may very probably imply other parallel reefs equally productive.

A few steps more, and we come, after passing the first shallow diggings which verify the continuity of the reef, to the mouth of the old mine, where a few laborers, with a very primitive apparatus, are busy clearing out the accumulated rubble of centuries in preparation for the genuine working to follow. A roughish sort of capstan, hand-worked, winds up the wire rope to which is attached the small truck that is filled below; and the sides of the primitive shaft-ladder, being shod with metal, serve as an ascending or descending track. Near by, I was interested in seeing the familiar "well-sweep," used for shallower operations: Up to the time of my writing, little has been done beyond opening up the old works in readiness for the exploitation which is to begin as soon as the company is formed. Let us go down the old shaft and see for ourselves whether the miners of an ancient day have exhausted all or left us something to discover.

Down the steep ladder we climb, clinging to its sides, which are slippery with greasy clay, and at a depth of about twenty metres are standing at the mouth of the first *couloir*, extending laterally to about an equal distance, and terminating in a sort of cavern, whose dimensions are a puzzle unless we assume that the old workers used it as a centre of operations. Here, as well as down the sides of the old shaft, the reef is plainly visible; it is, so to speak, "gouged out" at various points where the old gold-seekers' primitive methods of working led them to make their best findings. The floor of the above-mentioned cavern or grotto is pierced by another shaft, of which the depth is still unknown. Shorter tunnels here and there reveal not only the comparatively superficial character of all earlier exploitation, but also remains of "shoring-timbers," not ill preserved. In the opinion of the experienced prospector whose flickering candle I follow, all this work may be not inaptly described as little more than mere scraping. The reason is not far to seek: all the deposits lying nearest to the surface are comparatively friable, and thus render what gold they contain without requiring much more elaborate processes than the extremely simple one of "panning." Nowadays the lower strata, of which the hardness increases with their depth, are subjected to a treatment which secures not only the coarser grains revealed by panning, but a large proportion of the "fine gold" to which the connoisseur attaches still more importance.

The plant here being as yet too imperfect to permit the application of complete crushing, let us content ourselves with noting the yield of the first pan, clarified in my presence, as a test of what may be expected in the future. As every one knows, this process consists in triturating, or pulverizing, in a sort of kitchen pan, an indefinite quantity—a shovelful, let us say—of the ore; after repeated washings, the native gold, sinking to the bottom by its own weight, serves as a rough approximation of the average potential yield. Now, in the course of that afternoon, the test was tried three times without failing to render abundant support to the expectations of the gold-seekers, as the first yield, now in my possession, will show; this amounts to little more than a clearly perceptible quantity—perhaps as much as might fill a small cavity in a very slightly decayed tooth. But the unlearned in these matters have to rid themselves of a number of illusions; among others, for instance, of the belief that these rich gold strata contain nuggets as a pod does peas. It is extraordinary, when one comes face to face with the real facts, how many false notions have clung in one's mind from the silly literature of one's boyhood. I remember, in particular, a well-known tale of adventure, popular even to-day among boys, in which two enterprising youths were represented as turning out nuggets of native gold as large as turnips "by the spadeful" from a mere ditch not deeper than their own height. The truth is, that when a gold-reef gives such result as I noted above, one is justified in expecting at least an ounce and a half (thirty pennyweights was the expression used) to the ton of rough ore; and, in view of the fact that South African miners commonly feel rewarded by a steady

average of eighteen pennyweights, the enthusiasm of my companions will not be put down to their very modest indulgence in the juices that ripen under Lusitanian summers. Their previous pannings had, it seems, never proved quite so rich.

But this day, eventful enough already in the eyes of a novelty-seeking tourist, was destined not to end without rounding off in singularly appropriate finish; it received, in other words, its *panache*. Our attention was suddenly drawn to the creaking wheels of a heavy Portuguese ox-wagon, the outside of which had been covered, with an improvised canopy of gayly colored cotton print, as a protection to the bevy of beauties that skipped daintily out from the interior. Two carriage-loads of mature parents and *duêñas* that followed stood as sponsors for the situation. All these visitors were among the notabilities of Thomar, and, having long heard of the gold find, had selected this day for an outing and picnic near the mouth of the shaft. Having come by an upper and longer road, they had approached us unawares. For their benefit, experiments and tests were again applied, and a few of the more venturesome consented to sully their immaculate boots with the mire of the shaft and galleries. The men of the party, evidently with an eye to business, followed the inductions with shrewd interest, putting now and again leading questions that proved the expedition to be, on their part at least, not altogether a *passcio de recreo*. But I must add that when it came to examining the bottom of the pan for gold, the daughters of Portugal clustered alertly about, and showed in their great dark eyes all the eagerness that a miner could wish.

Portuguese hospitality is apt to be as ready as it is lavish. In these southern countries the ancient custom still prevails of offering food and drink of the best to those for whom one has a human kindly feeling. After the ostensible business of the day was over, the members of our party were consequently bidden to the *jantar* (for dinner it really was) for which these generous people had made provision, including in expectation the four foreign guests. The usual picnic supply in excess of demand might have reminded one not only of the fictitious "noces de Gamache" of the neighboring country, but of the sumptuous tables spread a century ago by the monks of Alcobaça for the author of 'Vathek.' On the long table quickly improvised by the workmen of the mining cottage, hot soup, made dishes of many sorts, sweets and cakes, varieties of fruit, coffee accompanied by cigars not usually found in the Government shop, came in leisurely procession, while the attendants in linen undress livery discreetly saw to it that no glass remained empty either of the delicately flavored wine of the district or of the more famous vintages of the upper Douro. There appear to be two very pretty customs practised by the Portuguese on such occasions as this. The first consists in drinking mutual healths without formal speeches, beginning with that of the two principal ladies who are, as it were, the leaders of the feminine part of the enterprise and guarantee its gastronomic success. Social habits having decreed that the two sexes shall occupy opposite sides of the table, nothing was easier than to discern, through the looks of conscious modesty, in whose

honor the few simple words were spoken. The other custom consists in a general handshaking and kissing after the conclusion of the festivities—a ceremony, however, not indiscriminately extended to even the most guileless or undesigning foreigner.

Our drive back to the hotel, in the late evening, broken by a short call at the Villa Arbello—whose owner, a local poet of merit, speaks English like a native, and who preserves, through his descent, the appearance of an English country gentleman—was for the rest of the time mainly silent. My entertainers were doubtless thinking of the hopes which this discovery in foreign soil appears to justify. My own reflections revolved rather about the singular irony of destiny which has turned these now homeless exiles out of the rich extremity of one continent in order to make them the forerunners of hitherto unsuspected possibilities of development in another. The obscured, perhaps extinguished, aspirations of these unyielding Afrikanders it is quite impossible for a sincere British subject to share; but the pathos of a lost cause, which in our historical studies we are exhorted to feel for wrangling Poland, should at all events not be denied in the case of men who, capable of self-government and amity according to their own conceptions, have shrunk from no sacrifice in the defence of what appeared to them the indefeasible right to a national autonomy. What they now look forward to will be in every sense their own, secured as it already is by careful legal concessions. But for this last fact, I should not have felt warranted in publishing what their own frankness urged me to make known.

P. T. L.

Correspondence.

M. LAUGEL'S AMERICAN DIARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The extracts from the diary of M. Auguste Laugel, now appearing in the *Nation*, pleasantly recall the contemporary articles, based on the same visit, which appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The articles began in the number for December 15, 1864, and continued at intervals through the next year. Respectfully yours,

JAMES J. DOW.

FARIBAULT, MINN., August 2, 1902.

Notes.

Little, Brown & Co. will issue in the autumn a volume of short critical articles, entitled 'Retrospect and Prospect,' by Capt. A. T. Mahan.

Another volume of Timothy Cole's wood-engravings, 'Old English Masters,' with text from his own notes and by Prof. John C. Van Dyke, is to be brought out by the Century Company.

Two volumes of 'Essays, Historical and Literary,' by the late John Fiske, made ready for the press before he died, will shortly be published by Macmillan Co. The themes are largely American, but Milton, Tyndall, and Huxley, as well as Evolution, are also treated.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in preparation a volume on the late volcanic disturbances in

the West Indies, by Prof. Angelo Hellprin. They announce further: 'Delhi,' from the diary and letters of Col. Keith Young, edited by Sir Henry Norman; 'Home Life of the Borneo Head-hunters,' by Dr. W. H. Furness; and a revised edition of his father's New Variorum edition of "Macbeth," by Horace Howard Furness, jr.

'Paris, 1789-1794,' by John Goldworth Alger, will have James Pott & Co. for its American publishers.

Henry Vignaud's 'Letter and Chart of Toscanelli on the Route to the Indies by Way of the West' will be issued directly by E. P. Dutton & Co.

Mr. Carl Fischer-Hansen of this city has agreed with the publishing-house of Gyl-dendal in Copenhagen to publish his work on 'America,' in twelve chapters, among which we cite those dealing with the Legal Profession, Trusts, Religious Institutions, Schools, the Universities, the Army, American Literature.

Henry Frowde will soon publish the first instalment of the "Tebtunis Papyri" found by Grenfell and Hunt in the south of the Fayûm, and edited by them, with the assistance of Mr. J. Gilbert Smyly. The excavations were conducted at the expense of Mrs. Hearst on behalf of the University of California, and the volume will usher in a series of publications on Egyptian archæology by that institution. The papyri were derived from the wrappings of mummied crocodiles, and date from the division between the first and second centuries B. C. The contents are often official.

Twenty-five years have brought Mr. Hubert Hall's 'Society in the Elizabethan Age' to a third edition (London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Dutton). What is new here is a supplementary appendix abstracting "Wild Darrell's" letters written in the Fleet prison in 1579, and making Darrell still more the chief figure on this stage, and still more the object of persecution by his enemies. The book maintains its popularity by its learning rather than by its literary quality.

The most interesting thing in Mr. T. W. H. Crosland's 'Unspeakable Scot' (Putnams) is that the book has real feeling and was not simply written to sell. It mirrors an actual situation. Outside of England that situation is unknown and hardly intelligible, but in England there can be no question that the Scotch are regarded with dislike, contempt, and a curious fear. With a difference, it is the Continental attitude toward the Jew. With another difference, it is the attitude of the English to all foreigners, the attitude which has earned such hatred for England on the Continent. Only, the Scotch are close at hand, which is the difference and the sting. That a mere handful of people in a country which rightly should be nothing but a playground and a purveyor of Scotch whiskey for the South, should so dominate that South, is—to the South—a thing (and the humor is that only by a Scotch word can they express it) uncanny. Stevenson, who was no very ardent Scotchman, has admirably analyzed this English attitude, and now Mr. Crosland writes a book which illustrates Stevenson's analysis from point to point. Of other value, the book has little. That it pricks the pseudo-paths of the kail-yard school is its one literary redeeming feature. Otherwise, it is personally spiteful

and elaborately insolent. But it is an excellent human document.

The spirit of the old Persian rule "to learn to ride, to draw the bow, to speak the truth," supplemented by such learning as befits the soldier of to-day, is that of the United States Military Academy, the most democratic of all our institutions. We know no school where so much individual instruction, physical and mental, is supplied and absorbed, and none whose impress remains longer. Those who can stand the pace are carried through in great style, and those who cannot are relentlessly dropped. The place has its limitations, but its advantages far exceed its defects. H. Irving Hancock's 'Life at West Point' (Putnams) admirably describes the equipment a candidate must possess, and the rigorous and vigorous treatment that he undergoes from the hour he reports until, by graduation or less happily, he doffs the gray. It is neither fiction nor a guide-book, but in it the aspirant and the aspirant's father can trace in advance or contemporaneously the winding way among the scholastic and disciplinary obstacles, as well as some of the available pleasures. The only notable omission we observe is the curious one of failure to explain in detail the cadet organization and the responsibilities resting upon the neophytes themselves, from the negative one of immediate and unquestioning obedience by the nameless newly arrived and homesick wretch, to those of the glorious adjutant and first captain who, in the eyes of the battalion, outrank commissioned officers.

When we find an intelligent man asserting that "to produce strong teeth is almost as simple a matter as to produce strong arms," one's interest is immediately aroused, and careful reading shows Dr. Samuel A. Hopkins's little book on 'The Care of the Teeth' (D. Appleton & Co.) to be full of shrewd observation and intelligent advice in readable form. It is a most encouraging essay for adults to follow for themselves as well as with children, and the reasoning commends itself.

Deserving of mention among the multitude of like contributions is Roger Raoul-Duval's 'Au Transvaal, et dans le Sud-Africain avec les Attachés Militaires' (Paris: Ch. Delagrave). The author had the advantage of being in London during the preparations for the war, and afterwards of accompanying the Boer forces in several campaigns. He asserts that the War Office was well informed of all that was going on in South Africa, and knew accurately all the military preparations of the Boers, the extent of their armaments, and the character of their fortifications. Nevertheless, it was generally believed that the Boers would not fight, and that they would be easily overcome if they did. How this delusion was ended, the author relates. His tone is singularly impartial; he speaks of the Boers with esteem and even affection, but criticises severely their discipline and their aggressive tactics. Col. Villebois-Mareuil, he says, would have taken Ladysmith could he have obtained support; but the Boer generals, although they esteemed him, would not adopt any of his suggestions. There is not much in the book that is new, but the narrative of the author's adventures is entertaining, and his style is noticeably clear and smooth, even for a Frenchman. There are many illus-

trations, most of them commonplace; but some, printed in several tones, are striking.

One often hesitates for a moment in turning the leaves of the second volume of Thackeray and Stone's 'Florilegium Latinum' (John Lane), containing two hundred Latin verse translations from the Victorian poets, whether to admire most the English original on the left or the Latin replica on the right-hand page. Inspiration must, of course, soon win the day, but such a mastery over the niceties of the Latin idiom and the dignity or daintiness of Latin metres have some English scholars attained that, were the originals absent, it might be thought that the copies were fresh creations. Long may the gentle art flourish—*grata Musa grata umbra*.

The July issue of that laudable series called *Masters in Art* (Boston: Bates & Guild Co.) contains for its ten regulation plates as many excellent specimens, from orthographic negatives, of Paul Potter's work. The letter-press, as usual, includes a sketch of the painter's life, descriptions of the paintings reproduced, selected estimates of his art, and a bibliography regarding him. A portrait of Potter, by Van der Helst, is thrown in.

The August *Scribner's* is almost exclusively a "fiction number," the exceptions being four short poems and the usual departments at the end. F. Hopkinson Smith's "Fortunes of Oliver Horn" is concluded, and the conclusion of "Capt. Macklin," by Richard Harding Davis, is announced for the next number. Kipling, J. M. Barrie, A. T. Quiller-Couch, Sewall Ford, Arthur Ruhl, Edith Wharton, and Mary R. S. Andrews furnish the shorter pieces. A hitherto unpublished portrait of Frank R. Stockton, by Mrs. Dora Wheeler Keith, is reproduced, together with a group of sketches of his former home and grounds at Convent, N. J., by A. B. Frost.

The Boston Society of Natural History has recently issued as one of its Memoirs an account, by Prof. E. S. Morse, of observations on living Brachiopoda, comprising 73 pages of text and 23 quarto plates exquisitely drawn by the author. Japan is the most prolific country in recent Brachiopoda, and Professor Morse was admirably qualified by previous studies to take advantage of his opportunities there. Though study by means of sections, stained and hardened, has become indispensable in the anatomy of the lower forms of life, the tissues are inevitably more or less withered and distorted by the chemicals used, so that, without the corrections afforded by living or fresh material, the method is not unlike the study of fish anatomy by dissecting smoked herring. It is this essential element in the comprehension of an interesting group of animals which is supplied by Professor Morse in the present memoir, for which other students of the Brachiopoda will be under lasting obligations to him.

A writer in *Notes and Queries* for July 19 announces his having made a "list of all the words in Bacon that strike a reader familiar with Shakspeare." He expects to prove that, "excluding words common to all writers of that period," Shakspeare and Bacon "have not 2 per cent. of their vocabulary in common."

The European 'Continental literature' of the past twelve months, according to the chroniclers in the midyear number of the

London *Athenaeum*, has been marked by a dearth of important works. The attempt to cater for all tastes has brought about what some writers term a "literary anarchy," while others hold that the great number of magazines and reviews has much to do with existing conditions. A large part of the twenty-eight pages is taken up with works of fiction, most of which, apparently, would be excluded from our public libraries. Of poetry there is little worthy of note—"our age is by no means favorable to its production," says one of the reviewers; but in the drama some strength is shown. Possibly what is said of one country may be true of the others: "All branches of French literature are passing through a period of expectancy."

The chief feature of the annual report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for the past year is his own discussion, in collaboration with Mr. Stuart Weller, of the rocks of the Green Pond Mountain region, one of the most interesting and picturesque tracts in the entire State. This paper, very scrupulous in its acknowledgment of previous investigations, but displaying independent critical judgment, is accompanied by some striking photographic plates, and by a colored folding map of the formations under review.

The thirteenth annual report of the Missouri Botanical Garden of St. Louis is remarkable for a paper on the Yuccae, by the Director, Mr. William Trelease, accompanied by numerous beautiful illustrations and maps of distribution by species in the United States according to present information.

A movement is on foot at Oxford with a view to bringing before Congregation (one of the legislative bodies of the University) a proposal substituting the requirement of either Greek or Latin for the present requirement of both Greek and Latin in "Responsions"—the examination most nearly corresponding to an admission examination like those held by American institutions. The proposal in question is likely to come up for discussion next October, but is not believed in many quarters to have much chance of success. A vigorous committee has been organized to oppose it, and is composed of twenty-seven members of Congregation; all of them, with one exception, being active teachers or administrators in the University. One striking fact is, that teachers of Greek and Latin at Oxford have not the prominence in this opposing movement which they have always had in similar efforts as organized at various American universities where the "Greek Question" has been on the tapis. Four of them are Heads of "Houses" (Colleges and Halls), five are University Professors and Readers, three of them are lecturers in natural science, eight are specialists in historical study, two are notable students of Dante, and one is a distinguished political economist. This seems to promise unbiased discussion of the claims of compulsory Greek when the time comes, and may easily win attention from the American academic world to the conclusions arrived at in Oxford next October upon this very fundamental topic.

The unveiling of the Robert Owen Memorial in the old churchyard of Newtown, England, on July 12 was the occasion of a remarkable testimonial by Mr. George J.

Holyoake, the last of the Social Missionaries appointed in 1841 to advocate Owen's "New Views" of society, and the only survivor of his disciples. He described Owen as a man who contributed "more original ideas for the conduct of public affairs than any other thinker of his generation," or, in Southey's words, as "one of the three great moral forces" of his day. The cooperative store, the Factory Acts, the eight-hours day, the national infants' schools, Mr. Holyoake claimed, were due to Owen's advocacy of them. "By buying and working up the first bale of cotton imported into this country, he practically founded the foreign cotton trade." His greatest work, however, was teaching the great truth that "environment was the maker of men, . . . that there were material means, largely unused, conducive to human improvement." Through him, therefore, we had been brought nearer to that state of society which he strove to create, "in which it should be impossible for men to be depraved or poor." Huxley has said: "I think that every one who is compelled to look closely into the problem of popular education, must be led to Owen's conclusions, that the infants' school is, so to speak, the key of the position. Robert Owen discerned this great fact, and had the patience and courage to work out his theory into a practical reality. That is his claim—if he had no other—to the enduring gratitude of the people."

The awakening of an African people to the dangers of ignorance is shown by the sale of 65,393 educational and religious books in the native language in Uganda last year. Two-thirds of these were "first readers," a fair indication of the number of people beginning to read. There were also sold 25,556 exercise books, pens, and pencils, and 6,032 quires of note-paper. The boys' school at Mengo, the capital, has more than five hundred regular attendants, the numbers enrolled exceeding 650. Some of their exercises were sent to Sir Henry M. Stanley, who, in acknowledging them, writes: "The handwriting of your pupils compares very favorably with that of English boys, and the sums quoted betray a remarkable aptitude for figures."

A regular service of steamers has been established between Khartum and the Uganda frontier. The opening of the Upper Nile to navigation by the removal of the sudd is of great importance in the development of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, and, for the present, will make the construction of this section of the Cape to Cairo Railway a mere waste of money. The great need, says Sir Rudolf von Slatin, is a railway from Berber on the Nile to Suakin on the Red Sea, "not merely for the purpose of carrying export and import goods, but for the purpose of supplying us with fuel." This completed, he advocates the introduction of "heavy freight-carrying motors," the nature of the country being adapted to their use. He reports general tranquillity prevailing, and in some parts rapid progress. With regard to the Senussi, a Mohammedan sect which it was feared would renew the attempt of the Mahdi to exterminate the foreigner, he says that the leader "is a peaceful man, whose only anxiety is that Moslems should lead a strict life. There is nothing to induce the belief that he will cause trouble to the Government."

A peculiarly annoying blunder occurred in the article on page 106 of our last issue, "The Teaching of Art in Universities." The twenty-first line from the bottom of the middle column should read: 'may be taught more or less well.' His reason is.' In the eighth line from the end of the same article, page 107, 'drawing and modelling' should read 'drawing or modelling.'

—Mr. John T. Hassam, who has, with a particularity of research worthy of Sibley in his 'Harvard Graduates,' already traced the lives of the Recorders, Clerks, and Registers of Deeds for the County of Suffolk, Mass. (*i. e.*, Boston), has applied the same method to the Suffolk Registers of Probate from 1639 to 1799. This paper may be found in the current Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, and it has been separately printed. Incidentally an account is given of the extraordinary fate of the probate records from their transportation to Halifax with the Loyalists after the siege of Boston, down to their present (but very recent) model arrangement. The Register whose term was longest (1759-1799) was William Cooper, grandson of Judge Samuel Sewall, and his public services are most minutely recorded by Mr. Hassam. He was also town clerk through all party changes, yet he failed to record his original election, and, though he was the father of seventeen children, the births of none of them are entered in the Town Records, not even the six which occurred during his own incumbency. He it was who made a motion in town meeting on March 5, 1783, by which the annual celebration of the Boston Massacre was relinquished in favor of the 4th of July, on the ground that "the immediate Motives which induced the commemoration of that day [March 5, 1770], do now no longer exist in their primitive force." As we have, in the third decade of the second century of the Declaration, "burnt" that instrument, is it not time to exchange the 4th of July for some other memorable date—say, that on which Funston captured Aguinaldo?

—A chapter from the report of the Commissioner of Education for 1900-1901, dealing with "German Instruction in American Schools," has reached us in the form of a pamphlet of advance sheets. It reminds one of the "Circulars of Information" formerly sent out by the Bureau of Education, but discontinued several years ago. This form of publication has its advantages, and the present pamphlet of somewhat less than 200 pages is likely to receive the attention of more readers than it will when buried in the mass of the two bulky regulation volumes. The subject is one of immediate concern to many parents and students. The study of German in this country has rapidly grown in favor during the last three decades, and the quality of instruction in the higher institutions has improved in nearly the same proportion as the number of students in the department. In the majority of secondary schools, however, the teaching is still far from satisfactory, from causes connected with the general management of our public schools, and therefore difficult to remove. A change for the better must, in the main, depend upon an enlightened public judgment to which such publications as this treatise

sent out by Commissioner Harris may contribute. Though historical and statistical in its contents, it shows clearly the importance attached to the study of German by the greatest American educators for a century past, and suggests ways toward the realization of better results. The strong German-American bias of the writer, Mr. L. Viereck, does not detract from the interest and utility of the information which he has industriously compiled from sources familiar, presumably, only to investigators in the same line. It would seem, however, that in a public document, especially in one issuing from the Bureau of Education, the English language ought to be handled with greater respect for purity and style than has been shown it in the present case.

—Milan is the chief operatic market of Italy. Official figures show that, some years ago, 1,745 families in that city derived employment and a regular income from the theatrical industry, and it is estimated that, if we include the Italian opera companies engaged in Milan for Spanish, Portuguese, and South American cities, about \$7,000,000 has been turned over in one year in operatic business. W. Johnson Galloway, M. P., mentions these facts in his little book, 'The Operatic Problem' (John Lane), as one of his arguments for the establishment of a National Opera-house in England. Why should not London emulate Milan, nay, surpass it, as a pound surpasses a lira? There was a time when Italy supplied the whole world with singers. In those days the opera-houses were in receipt of regular subventions from the municipalities. Then the cry arose that if the wealthy and the nobles wanted their opera, they could pay for it themselves. Cavour opposed this idea. "I do not understand a note of music," he said, "and could not distinguish between a drum and a violin; but I understand very well that, for the Italian nation, the art of music is not only a source of glory, but also the primary cause of an enormous commerce, which has ramifications in the whole world. I believe, therefore, that it is the duty of the Government to help so important an industry." But the municipalities withdrew their subsidies, and, as Mr. Galloway remarks, "the start of their short-sighted policy coincided with the gradual decadence of Italian opera, until this form of entertainment lost prestige and custom with the best of its former clients, England, Russia, and France."

—What Mr. Galloway advocates for England is state intervention and the establishment of a subsidized national opera-house. He discusses the plans for aiding the opera followed in France, Italy, and Germany, and concludes that the German is, on the whole, the best. He gives copious figures to show "the colossal benefit princely patronage and subvention bestow on the theatre-goer, in putting a favorite entertainment within the reach of the masses"; and he seems convinced that opera would flourish as much in England as it does in Germany if Londoners, for instance, could enjoy the privilege of the Berliner—of hearing 280 performances, in one year, of 52 different operas at prices for seats ranging from about \$2 down to 50 cents. From years of personal experience, he thinks, he can vouch for "a feel-

ing akin to yearning in the great masses of the music-loving public after operatic music, even when stripped of theatrical paraphernalia, such, for example, as one gets at purely orchestral concerts." Whatever one may think about these diverse arguments, one cannot but agree with Mr. Galloway that the failure of the attempt made some years ago to establish a national opera by trying to run Sullivan's "Ivanhoe" a hundred nights does not prove anything. The theatre chosen was too small for grand opera; the libretto was overloaded and clumsily constructed; and Sullivan failed in his attempt to write grand opera. "The music kept trying to soar, but was all the time chained by the leg." The climax of the folly lay in running "Ivanhoe" every night. Not even "Lohengrin," "Faust," or "Carmen" could have stood such a test.

—Mr. Edward Jenks has added to the "Heroes of the Nations" series (Putnams) a volume on Edward I., which is styled 'Edward Plantagenet, the English Justinian, or the Making of the Common Law.' The second title is particularly important because the author, feeling himself to be a lawyer more than a historian, concentrates much of his attention upon the legal aspects of the reign. "Perhaps," he says, "it is necessary that I should offer a word of apology for the intrusion of a mere lawyer upon a scene so dominated by great historians. My explanation is, that I have long been unable to understand how any one but a lawyer can possibly appreciate the true inwardness of Edward's reign. The Common Law which came into existence during his lifetime was, and is, the very picture of English national life, the concrete form into which the national spirit crystallizes with the moving centuries." The most valuable parts of the book are Chapter IX., which is entitled, "The English Justinian," and Chapter XIII., which is entitled, "The King and his Work." Had Mr. Jenks expanded these portions of his work it would have been better still, and he might readily have done so, for his opening section is very much *ab ovo*. Why the writer of such a monograph should begin with page after page on the study of history, the battle of Tours, the Empire of Charles the Great, Benedict of Nursia, the *Scriptorium*, Gregory VIII., Zenghis Khan, Ogodai, Venetians and Genoese, we find it difficult to imagine. Even when England is reached in the third chapter, and Edward in the fourth, the treatment of subsidiary matters is far too diffuse. From being a lawyer who is at the same time a student of history, Mr. Jenks has just and solid reasons for writing of Edward I. When he is on purely historical ground, he not only is diffuse at the wrong time, but displays no special aptitude for this species of composition. The part devoted to the Common Law is much more satisfactory, and, for the reason already mentioned, we wish that it were longer. According to Mr. Jenks's view, "some of Edward's most brilliant achievements in legislation and statecraft are wholly missed by lay historians, simply because these achievements are expressed in highly technical language." To clear up technical matters for the general reader is therefore one of his aims, but he has another which is broader still. "I should hardly have ventured the task, had I not been encouraged

by those whose opinions were entitled to greater weight than my own, to hope that I might in some degree succeed in persuading my readers that law is a dull subject only to those who do not understand it." Though he has not done much for political or military history, Mr. Jenks has succeeded in accomplishing his main purpose. His account of those remarkable years, 1283-1285, is all that could be asked for in a volume of this scope. Where the constitutional historians are usually content to take it for granted that their most technical statements will be understood, he is patient and explanatory, and we may even believe that he will make law seem less formidable to some than it has been hitherto. Better subjects for the illustrations might easily have been chosen.

—Lowell, in his address before the Modern Language Association in 1889, expressed his surprise at having lived to see an old French text edited by an American scholar. It is difficult to estimate the astonishment with which he would have picked up the latest of the Yale bicentennial publications, a collection of all the extant Galician poems of the Gallego-Castilian lyric school, 'Cancioneiro Gallego-Castellano' (Scribner), by Prof. Henry R. Lang, whose reputation as a Romance scholar was firmly established by the publication of his 'Liederbuch des Königs Denis von Portugal' some seven or eight years ago. Professor Lang's first volume was devoted to the earliest school of Portuguese poetry, which flourished at the Court of King Dionysius, himself the most representative poet of the school; and the book contained a careful text of the lyrics of the poet-king. After the death of Dionysius, in 1325, the chivalric lyric ceased to find favor at court until, after more than a century, there came a revival of the Iberian inspiration in the Castilian-Portuguese school which flourished from 1449 to 1521. The transition period between these two schools of Peninsular poetry furnishes the subject of Professor Lang's latest work, which is appropriately dedicated to King Charles of Portugal. The lyrics, for the most part written in a transitional Galician dialect, and ranging in theme from the courtly love verse of Gonzales de Mendoza to the jolly burlesques of the Archdeacon of Toro, are preserved in various Castilian song-books, and, with the aid of the list prepared by Carolina Michaelis de Vasconcellos, they have been disinterred and brought together in a volume of dignified appearance, collated, emended, and furnished with a glossary and a very complete and careful critical apparatus, which has all the authority of the most advanced German philological science. A second volume, dealing with the literary and linguistic study of this poetry, and with the historical problems of the period in which it flourished, is promised by the author, and, when completed, the work will doubtless be a valuable contribution to an important though restricted field of literary history.

—'L'Avenir Colonial de la France,' by E. Fallot (Paris: Ch. Delagrave), is the best general work on French colonization that has come under our notice. It is the work of a practical man, and is designed above all else for the instruction

of Frenchmen who are or should be interested in colonial matters. Aside from the conventional political fireworks of the introduction (by another hand), the whole volume exhibits sound sense and business-like impartiality. The author calculates the value of France's colonial assets and prospects as a merchant reckons up his stock and scrutinizes his ventures. He is evidently of the opinion that the best way to assure a colonial future is to recognize and correct the blunders of a melancholy colonial past. He is also willing, as some Frenchmen are not, to square the national system with that of more successful colonizing peoples, and to accept any suggestions which the comparison affords. Of the more mechanical portion of the book it is enough to say that it is full, detailed, and up to date; it teems with facts, explains local terms, and is illustrated with excellent detail maps and with compact and well-chosen statistics. All this is of the highest utility; but one hastens from the facts to the deductions. Can the French, then, hold and develop this second world-empire, fallen so fortuitously into their hands? "Aptitude for colonization" is, according to the author's experience, an illusion—or, rather, it is a combination of qualities of a very practical and often, to lofty souls, uninteresting nature. He hopes and believes that the traditional French fondness for the grand style and for the sweeping and supposedly labor-saving synthesis is passing away. The author's economic and political studies issue in recommendations of the following lines of policy, among others scarcely less significant: expansion of credit in the colonies (even to the extent of founding land-banks and advancing funds on the security of unsown crops); unlimited development of transportation facilities, especially of railroads; renunciation of state enterprise, particularly in the matter of land-assignments, in the case of which the system of gratuitous concessions should give place to the Wakefield system; the limitation of military regulation as far as practicable; and the return, regarded by the author as inevitable, to coolie labor. Especially does M. Fallot insist upon the definitive abandonment of antiquated protectionist measures, whose evil effects, in the past and present he convincingly demonstrates. The organization of Tunis, the newest great colony, and the scene of the author's own official activity, has profited best by the lessons of the past, and forms a pleasing exception to most of the old mistaken lines of policy. The volume is provided with a full index, but next to no references to authorities are to be found.

MONUMENTS OF THE EARLY CHURCH.

Monuments of the Early Church. By Walter Lowrie. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

A truly scientific treatment of Christian archaeology, presented in the English language, written from the point of view of a scholar, and dissociated from religious and theological questions, has long been needed. To supply this want has naturally been a very difficult problem. Scholars fitted for the task because of their opportunities of coming in contact with the remains of Christian antiquity, have been men whose

training was primarily theological and whose standpoint has been determined by that fact. They have been theologians and not archaeologists. Scholars of other countries, like Wilpert of Germany and Marucchi of Italy, have, however, handled the subject with commendable independence, although Marucchi has sometimes "nodded" because of his desire to confirm some point of ecclesiastical history.

The present work, prepared by Mr. Walter Lowrie, late Fellow of the American School of Classical Studies at Rome, evidently comes very close to the ideal just referred to. Although the author is a clergyman, there is nothing in the book which would indicate any theological or religious bias, and the impression conveyed is that of a calm, unprejudiced discussion. This satisfactory result is due, in part at least, to the opportunities which the author enjoyed while holding the Fellowship in the School at Rome. It was also a distinct advantage for him to prepare a book for an archaeological series of text-books rather than for a theological library. The author distinctly states that he has "confined himself scrupulously to the well-defined and soundly assured results of this study, and has endeavored to eliminate questions of a controversial character." The purpose of his volume is declared to be "to give a general view of the monuments of the early Church"; hence, it deals expressly with the "monumental remains of Christian antiquity, and only incidentally with the early literature which illustrates the period."

In an introduction which forms the first chapter and covers twenty-two pages, our author treats of a number of topics which enter into the general framework of his subject, such as the debt which Christian art and archaeology owe to classic art and archaeology, so that the former, adapting to itself the latter, was "full grown when it was born, and its decline dates from its beginning." The early Church did not object to the religious use of art, which may therefore be regarded as beginning at the close of the first century, and any increased artistic activity in the third and fourth centuries is an evidence of this spirit and not a proof of corruption incident to imperial favor. A survey of the various classes of monuments and their location indicates that, for painting, we must look to the catacombs; for sculpture, to the sarcophagi of the fourth and fifth centuries; for architecture, to the churches built in the fifth and sixth centuries. Monuments illustrating Christian archaeology, though found in the East, occur in greater number in the West, and pre-eminently at Rome. The last pages of the introduction contain a brief reference to literature closely related to archaeological study, the martyrologies, the itineraries, *liber pontificalis*, the poetic *tituli*, and, finally, an historical survey of the study of Christian archaeology.

The author's style in the introduction is, unfortunately, not such as to lead a student to press on to the main portion of the book. It is condensed and at times ambiguous, and imposes upon the reader the double task of understanding both the meaning of the author and the subject of which he treats. A few typographical errors occur here, as the omission of "to" on page 4, and "monument" for "monuments"

on page 21. There is also inconsistency in the use of capitals—a fault which mars other pages of the book.

Christian cemeteries are considered in the second chapter, of sixty pages. Of these, twenty are assigned to the catacombs. Then follow brief discussions on surface burial, the agape, legal tenure of cemeteries, burial societies, and, finally, inscriptions. The opening sentence of the chapter is unintelligible. "The word 'catacomb' has a curious history and a very doubtful etymology; De Rossi takes it to be a hybrid word, half Greek and half Latin, meaning 'next the sepulchres'—*accubitorium* is a late Latin word for 'tomb.'" The fact is that De Rossi compared *cata cumbas* with *cata accubitoria* or *ad coemeteria*, i. e., 'by the resting places.' It may be added that Mr. Lowrie's suggestion as to the origin of the word is only one of many and not by any means the most satisfactory.

The explanation of the difficult subject of the titles and their relation to the catacombs, as given on page 39, is very obscure, and again demands a struggle to discover the meaning of the author, whose ambiguity suggests the possibility of uncertainty in his own mind. As regards the inconsistency of legal property rights appertaining to the Church, an institution whose existence was prohibited, Mr. Lowrie gives the hypothesis of De Rossi, that the Church became a legalized burial society, and thus obtained protection, and also states the theory of Duchesne, who holds that certain emperors tolerated the Church to such a degree as to allow it to hold property. Christian inscriptions are given fifteen pages, and are classified for the author's purpose as original titles and epitaphs, and later metrical inscriptions used by Damasus to adorn tombs. The first class is subdivided so as to recognize inscriptions giving data as to life and death, and again those which throw light on dogma. The appearance of three names in an inscription is said to denote a very high antiquity, but there is no mention of the fact that they might also indicate rank and a formality which did not belong to the early Christians, who would use the simple cognomen when addressing their fellows. The following paragraph (on page 69) is unsatisfactory, as it leaves the reader in doubt as to what variation in orthography distinguished the two classes.

"In point of orthography De Rossi distinguishes two classes of the primitive Roman inscriptions: those painted in red (in Pompeian fashion), which are characteristic of S. Priscilla; and those cut in the stone, which are elsewhere almost universal. The orthography is for the most part careless, and after the second century there begin to appear frequent mistakes which reflect the popular pronunciation and the popular idiom."

The chapter concludes with a history of the catacombs after the fourth century.

The third chapter, extending over one hundred pages, is entitled Christian Architecture, and here the author has relied upon Dr. Holtzinger for general knowledge, upon Professor Dehio for a study of the Christian basilica, and upon M. Choisy for an analysis of Byzantine architecture. As an explanation of the origin of the basilica, Mr. Lowrie accepts without limitation the German theory of its development from the Roman house, particularly that form in which the peristyle is part of the atrium, or,

as Mau would say, the house with a Corinthian atrium. This is illustrated by the house of Epidius Rufus, at Pompeii. This theory is very attractive, but it must be remembered that the form of house Mr. Lowrie mentions is very rare, so that it is more satisfactory, perhaps, to follow Schultze, who derives the basilica from what is regularly known as the peristyle; or Dehio, who derives it from the atrium. The *alæ* form the later transept, the *tablinum* the apse, the final form of which undoubtedly imitates the civil basilica. The identity of name led to the old theory that the Christian building was the copy of the civil basilica, and that a number of civil buildings became churches—an occurrence of which there is no known record. The type of buildings constructed about a central perpendicular axis is next described. These may be classified as round like the Pantheon, of the composite plan like S. Vitale at Ravenna, and with dome on square base (either in cross-shaped plan or oblong) like S. Sophia. Church furniture and the location and surroundings of the buildings form the subject of discussion in the last pages of this chapter. It is interesting to note that, for the orientation of churches, the rule that the apse should be towards the east is not regularly followed until the Middle Ages; other influences (such as the direction of a street) prevailing in certain instances.

Christian Art is treated in chapter 4, in one hundred and forty-five pages, under the subdivisions pictorial art, sculpture, mosaics, and miniatures. In his interpretation of early art, Mr. Lowrie wisely takes the middle ground recognizing the symbolic character of the pictures of the catacombs, but disavowing any sympathy with those who are fanciful in their views. It will perhaps astonish the reader to learn that "an undisguised representation of the cross is rarely found in early Christian art, and De Rossi could point to only one instance before Constantine." This arose from the dislike felt by the early Christians to represent the then familiar instrument of punishment as the means of the death of their Lord. It is interesting also to know that angels were not represented with wings during the first three centuries, and that winged figures did not become popular until the Lombard art of the early Middle Ages appeared. The section on Mosaics brings us back again to the basilica, for they form almost exclusively the decoration of these buildings. In those in S. Apollinare Nuovo at Ravenna, erected in 500 A. D., occurs the first instance of the type of the face of Christ in oval form and with pointed beard, so familiar to us now. Several statements in this chapter cannot be accepted, as the declarations that Christmas originated in "the principal festival of Mithras," and that the Constantinian symbol is formed in a "horse-shoe" instead of in the letter Ω , or again that the manuscripts copied and illuminated in the school of Charlemagne were directly derived from Syrian originals, whereas palæographers think the Irish schools were responsible for the ornamentation and decoration of manuscripts of the Charlemagne monasteries. The "minor arts" is the subject of the fifth chapter, and here the eucharistic vessels, lamps, textile stuffs, etc., are described, while articles of civil and ecclesiastical dress, such as the tunic, dalmatic, *pænula*, *chlamys*, *chasuble*, *stole*, and

maniple, are discussed in the concluding chapter.

The book closes with a select bibliography, accompanied by explanatory statements, and with an excellent index. There are 182 illustrations, which are indispensable for a book of this character, and which should be placed on the pages they are intended to illustrate and not scattered in all parts of the book. A list of illustrations follows the table of contents.

RECENT NOVELS.

Myra of the Pines. By Herman Knickerbocker Vielé. McClure, Phillips & Co.

The Red Anvil. By Charles Reginald Sherlock. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

John Kenadie. By Ripley D. Saunders. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Pasteboard Crown. By Clara Morris. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Ransom's Folly. By Richard Harding Davis. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The salient point in all Mr. Vielé's work is its originality. He tells either a new tale, or an old one in a new way, and sometimes both. Yet there is a refreshing absence of any striving and tugging after originality. The light airiness of his touch is as removed from affectation as it is from dullness. His work is a pleasurable addition to light fiction, and merits a shelf apart from the reading which is light and leaves the head light as well. It is no new thing to meet in stories attractive young women in sunbonnets, with half-cynical, wholly cheerful views of life, and of the coming (or come) hero. The literary mother with "copy," the astrologizing father, the shrewd land agent, may all be found in the dictionary of fiction, but certainly in 'Myra of the Pines' they wear their being with a difference. The Pine Barrens, too, have been freely, not to say overflowingly, painted in story, but have we ever personally lived there as we do under Mr. Vielé's conduct? The glimpse of the degraded Pinelanders is hideous, yet it serves to shade rather than to taint. And the forest fire is superbly described. We find in this little novel a note of its own, bright, silvery, unusual.

'The Red Anvil' tells a story of the days of the Fugitive Slave Law and the Underground Railroad. The scene lies in a New York town, which served as one of the so-called stations for forwarding the fugitives to the shores of Lake Ontario, and so to Canada. To those of older memories its pages will prove reminiscences and more—wayside chapels of thanksgiving. And a younger generation might with advantage absent them from colonial and mythical adventures awhile, and learn in what a harsh world and with what pain the breath was drawn in the early fifties by friends of the negro race, by lovers of the Union. As a story, 'The Red Anvil' is full of crudities and fatigues, but its history lesson is timely. There are many Americans who need to be reminded of the existence and conduct of the U. G. R. R., a road with neither engines nor rails nor cars, "unsurveyed, unmapped, unrouted," "a cryptic railroad whose only code was one of danger signals." Even the "cock-and-pye" "God-wot" hero of novelized eighteenth-century history employs no more romantic messenger than floating logs

of a "certain timber and notched in a certain way for the purpose of identification," swifter than horse or foot, and known to the initiate as "Mr. Wood." Indeed, the appendix alone, containing the provisions of the Fugitive Slave Law as enacted in 1793, and supplemented in 1850, will furnish matter startling to a younger America that cannot remember slavery days, if only for the clause setting forth that "in no trial or hearing shall the testimony of the alleged fugitive be admitted in evidence."

There is very little quality or significance in 'John Kenadie.' The motive—the unconscious inheritance of a Kentucky feud—is not amiss, but the development and execution of the story lack lustre. We are told that John Kenadie was a poet, but are not made to feel it, even though his verses were accepted by a magazine and subsequently published in book form. No, not even though John and his preceptor always "talked of the gentle things of letters and the bookish life." The avowed theme, however, the transmitted antagonism between John and Hugh, is better treated than the characterization, which is much like that of the domestic farmyard drama.

The most interesting parts of Miss Morris's story are those which relate to the technique of the stage; the most valuable those which point out to girl aspirants to the stage what pitfalls await them. Opportunity, opportunity, cries the preacher, is the enemy that lies in wait for the inexperienced and confiding, be they guarded as carefully as they may. There is solemn warning in these pages for the stage-struck. For lighter interest we see the stage from the expert's point of view—a satisfaction always; while criticisms on the book of the play by a player have a freshness and piquancy all their own and Miss Morris's.

Mr. Harding Davis's stories are in his best vein. The two novelettes are improbable enough not to stimulate the argumentative reader to disprove them. He is left free to cheerful, unchallenging enjoyment, while yet they are not so artificial as to neutralize interest. "La Lettre d'Amour" is a sketch of pretty and poetic suggestion. We might suggest in passing that, since the name of Ysaye is an important point in the story, the spelling of it ought to go to the proofreader before the next edition. The *would* and *should* editor, too, might profitably be consulted. The story of "The Derelict" conveys a graphic impression of the battle days in Cuba—"an empire wiped off the map in twenty minutes"—and of their lurid reflection in the fevered eye and brain of a war correspondent. The great sacrifice made by the poor old derelict to save Keating's departed honor is splendid, but annoying. We believe in Casabianca, we cordially hate his modern traducers; but we think Charlie Channing made a mistake when he signed his superior's inferior name to his own superior story. "The Bar Sinister," a dog story, is entirely delightful as a story and a dog, whatever it may be as Dog in the technical sense.

MICHEL COLOMBE.

Michel Colombe et la Sculpture Française de son Temps. Par Paul Vitry. Paris: Librairie Centrale des Beaux-Arts. 1901. Pp. xxiii, 531.

This is a work of mediæval archæology

into which have gone all the patience and sound and wholesome unbelief which recent students of classical archaeology have shown. There is in it, too, that enthusiasm which the long-continued study of the later Middle Ages, at least in their artistic development, has the power of exciting—an enthusiasm the greater because confined to a small body of students. It is in no way surprising that interest is more readily excited among persons interested in antiquity by Greek pre-Christian than by French fifteenth-century relics of the past. The former are associated with the loftiest literature and with all the study and tradition of our universities; the latter has to stand or fall with the respect of the student for constructional and creative work in form and color. There are a thousand students of the language of words and the literature that belongs to it for one who investigates the past history of the language of form and color and what belongs to that language; and all the more are those few students interested and excited in behalf of their own reserved field of investigation.

An ideal example of such enthusiastic work is the book before us, from a man new in the field, though not unknown in it, and confirming his right to the position of a leading archaeologist by the completion and publication of this one volume. It is of the accepted large octavo or narrow quarto form, familiar to the users of French books on fine art; it has sixteen plates, and perhaps three hundred illustrations in the text. These are all from half-tone blocks, and are not attractive. So far as they are concerned, the book is a disappointment; one expects more beautiful things from the Parisian house which publishes them. It is, of course, true that only at very heavy cost could they have been made much better. Nearly all the subjects are in-doors; the picture itself in nearly every case shows how bad and how troublesome was the light; and then there is that unfortunate tradition among the French photographers which abhors a sharp negative, and insists on putting artistic vagueness of outline even into the documents most necessary for study. Accordingly, it is not as a parlor-table book that this one is to be commended; it is a thoroughgoing piece of investigation, representing years of toil, and requiring days of reading and reference. As yet we have in the land only one or two great collections of photographs accessible to students, else the word would be passed, Go to the photograph-library and look up every one of the references to these works of art afresh, and with better pictures than M. Vitry has been able to supply.

Michel Colombe was certainly a sculptor of the last half of the fifteenth century. The old and the new authorities agree in this, and his birth may be set down as of about 1430; his death of 1512 or 1513. The Hofer biography avoids mention of the dates of birth and death, and states positively that nothing was known about this artist, not even his name, until a certain famous tomb in Nantes, in Brittany, was opened in 1727. That conservative statement marks the amount of knowledge which the world had down to the middle of the nineteenth century of one of its great sculptors. Since that

time the study of mediæval archaeology has been carried so far as to identify scores of important artists of the later Gothic epoch, and at the same time to reject a crowd of fantastical ascriptions which had passed current before. And this brings us to the essential peculiarity of the present work, that it is composed in the main of destructive criticism. It was necessary to state plainly that only this and that still existing work of sculpture was known to be by Michel; that only this and that now destroyed work was known to be by him; and, finally, that there are only such and such other works that can with any propriety be classed as of his school. It seems, therefore, at first thought, to diminish the interest of the study that each of the classes just indicated must, of course, be small. Thus, there are only three still existing works of art which are certainly by this artist. There are less than half a score of existing sculptures or groups of sculpture which are assuredly of the Colombe school. There are, perhaps, six works that have perished, but of which we know something, and that they were altogether or largely of Colombe's creation. Accordingly, as this complete "œuvre" is so very limited, the study of the art and of the epoch of Michel Colombe is very largely a matter of rejection, and is almost wholly a matter of minute and careful classification.

First, M. Vitry has shown his sense of what was needed by beginning his study at a point far away from the artist himself. He notes that it may prove erroneous to call Colombe a sculptor of the Renaissance. He devotes his Part One, 106 pages, to describing the late Gothic art in France, its constructional and decorative qualities, its essential difference from the Gothic of the thirteenth century, its still greater differentiation from anything that can properly be called Renaissance art—that is to say, art influenced by the classical revival of Italy—and also the French sculpture influenced by the Burgundian school, and that which was not so influenced. The most earnest plea is entered for the independence and for the artistic importance of the late French Gothic school of art. Nothing can exceed the boldness and energy with which this new man in the field has announced his defiance of the accepted doctrine that there is only one good Gothic, namely, of the years from 1180 to 1250. Nothing can exceed the earnestness with which the case is argued, the sympathy of the reader invoked, and his conviction invited as to the essential importance of that style which is exemplified for us, in architecture, by S. Maclou of Rouen, S. Wulfran of Abbeville, and a hundred mansions, of which the Hôtel de Cluny may be taken as a not too favorable example. As for the sculpture of the period, we are reminded pleasantly of the time when even Ruskin, that high priest of purity and simplicity in art, had careful photographs made of the statues of Abbeville, because he feared the threatened restoration of the cathedral. There is no sculpture more valuable for its decorative quality, and the free use of polychromy in connection with it is an added grace. This "flamboyant" style passed gradually into the non-constructional pseudo-Gothic of the sixteenth century; there is no denying that. So did the most original of all English styles, the perpen-

dicular, lead up to what was at once its greatest artistic glory and a complete denial of its constructive quality, the fan-traceried vaults of King's College Chapel and its congeners. That the French style was great and splendid from 1420 to 1510, and that it deserves profound study and enthusiastic admiration, is M. Vitry's contention; a theory which needs certainly not more nor more well-marshalled advocacy than he has here arrayed in its behalf.

Next, from page 107 to page 269 (Part Two), is developed the long account of the invasion of France by foreign artistic influences, the Flemish and the Italian influences especially, and those divided into what is noticeable before the pivotal year 1495, when Charles VIII. returned to France from his Italian campaign, and the time following. Before 1495 our author finds Italian as well as Flemish influences at work. After 1495 he finds Flemish as well as Italian influences at work. In other words, he thinks that, in the east of France, at least, Italy and Flanders struggled for a century for the perpetuation of mediæval taste on the one hand; on the other hand for the new classicality of sentiment, strong in the south of Europe since 1420. The second was, of course, the increasingly powerful influence; it is that which becomes more and more noticeable with time. There is mention of the plunder brought back by Charles VIII. from Italy, and the importations, of less reprehensible origin, of the later years. There is the moral weight of the gardeners, painters, and sculptors, invited by king and princes and nobles to come to France, and teach and work there; there is the commencement, here and there, of tomb building, shrine building, sculpture and the like in an attempted Italo-classical taste. And if the Flemish influence struggled with this for a time successfully, its flank was turned by the Italian influence which reached Flanders, too, so that it was half-heartedly that the French builders and sculptors could contend against the invasion from beyond the Alps. Nevertheless, it was with a whole-hearted and perfect energy and success that they worked in their own traditional ways, modified only as traditions are always in the way of being modified, by the new order of tastes and ambitions which were "in the air" around them; so that the sculpture of the years following 1495, like that of the preceding epoch, always abounded in force and significance.

Thus we are brought to the Third Part, and to the question of those sculptures of the time of Michel Colombe which are either his, or of his school, or so akin to his known work that they must be considered in close connection with it. Such is the famous sepulchre of Solesmes, a marvellous collection of sculptures in the little transept of an abbey church between Le Mans and Angers, and therefore in the heart of old Anjou. Such is the group of sculpture in the Abbey of Souvigny, between Nevers and Moulins, and therefore on the boundary of the old Duchy of Bourbon. Such are certain sculptures of Moulins itself, and others in Touraine, especially sculptures at Beaulieu-lès-Loches, Limeray, and several other little places lost to view except for those students who love the slow journeying about France, living with a simple and pleasant luxury at little inns, and spending the most blessed days of slow

observation "in churches and desolated châteaux where no tourist comes." Within this same Part Three is included Chapter IX., devoted to the life and career of Michel Colombe, with an attempt to recover all that is recoverable of his known labors; but quite separate from that is Chapter X., in which the existing sculptures known to be by him are described, three only in number, one of which is a small medal, but another a large and elaborate composition containing many figures. Following this comes a paper on the school founded by the artist, and a final chapter on the extended influence of his art in Burgundy, in Normandy, in the Île-de-France. And so, with a crowd of tables and a long bibliography to follow, the book is completed; certainly the most thoroughgoing piece of patient and sagacious archaeology which has come our way these many months. If the reader likes to see old ascriptions proved unfounded and scores of old statements proved false, while there is to console him for his lost illusions only a great certainty, and the noble enthusiasm for that which remains, then this book is to be commended to his notice.

Tiberius the Tyrant. By J. C. Tarver. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

Never have the attractions of alliteration led to a more misleading title than in the case of this book. From the title we should expect to find the author warring against those writers who, during the last thirty or forty years, have been endeavoring to clear the personal and political character of Tiberius from the obloquy that was spread over it by the "yellow journalism" of Suetonius and by the more dangerous, because morally attired, insinuations of Tacitus, so grand in his style, so small and narrow in his conception of the history of an empire. But, on the contrary, Mr. Tarver seems to think that he is doing something that has never been done before in his careful examination of our sources of knowledge about the Emperor, and that this vindication of him is a novelty. He is, to be sure, acquainted with Mommsen's characterization of Tiberius as "the ablest of the Roman Emperors," but he has apparently never heard (at least, he never makes mention) of the views of Sievers, Stahr, Freytag, Beesly, Furneaux, Huidekoper, and Allen. None of these writers accepted the Tiberius of table-talk, and all gave good reasons for their rejection of that after-dinner figure. It is true that few of them made use of a space of four hundred-odd pages in which to set forth their doubts, and that no one of them whitewashed the Emperor quite so clean as Mr. Tarver leaves him; still, we have not observed in this volume anything to the credit of Tiberius, whether fact or argument, which has not been adduced before.

But, although Mr. Tarver has to offer on this point nothing which is absolutely new to scholars, and although, whether from lack of information or ingratitude, he not seldom goes out of his way to accuse them of pedantry and (perhaps confusing students in general with some pedagogues of his own school days) of over-devotion to the gerund-grinding mill, yet it is probably true that, to the ordinary man of educa-

tion, Tiberius is still the accepted type of a bloodthirsty ruler and foul-minded, cruel-hearted man. It is true, also, that the books in which a wholly different picture of him is drawn are not of the sort which prove attractive to the general reader, for whom, indeed, they are not intended. Mr. Tarver's work was therefore worth doing, and he has done it excellently. Without making any show of learning (there is no preface, no bibliography, and only one footnote in the book), he has evidently mastered the ancient materials; in his study of them he has not been deceived by the fascinations of the style of Tacitus, "in whose pages nobody is good except men unconnected with the Administration, the Germans, and the historian's father-in-law"; and we are glad to observe that he gives due credit to the statements of the eye-witness Velleius Paterculus, who has been abused, we suspect, by many more critics than have read the old fellow's book. Working the materials over into a clear, straightforward (though sometimes too colloquial) narrative, he has accomplished his purpose by showing once again, and more conclusively, perhaps, than any other writer, that the Emperor Tiberius was a far-sighted, just-minded, and patriotic statesman, and that, as regards his character as a man, we have no reason to believe, but many reasons to disbelieve, the foul aspersions with which it has been besmirched.

The real value of this book, however, lies not in the pages about Tiberius himself, but rather in the long introduction and the many cursory paragraphs, in which the author shows a remarkable appreciation of the difficulties that beset the makers of the Roman empire. In his chapters on the expansion of Rome, with the resulting requirements and possibilities of which poets like Virgil and Homer had a higher realization than had the historians; on the extraordinary conglomeration which the Roman people had come to be, ruling "under conditions which were simply authorized anarchy, so that the deeply lamented fall of the Republic with which school histories are apt to close was the restoration of order"; and on the Senate, which had become all but an hereditary peerage, whose members, many of them, saw in the Empire only a curtailment of their sacred right to loot in the provinces and to bring about miscarriages of justice at home by the use of influence; and in his chapter on slavery, in which he reaches the conclusion that the institution was in ancient times beneficial to the advance of civilization—in all these and on other political topics he displays a sympathy with the imperial reformers (for such Augustus, with his ministers, and later Tiberius, certainly were), of a kind that is to be found in perhaps no other historian, and his picture of the early Empire and its policy is illuminated by means of many comparisons, brilliantly drawn, between those days and our own.

Thus the book is one of manifold interest, fitted to attract and instruct the general reader as well as students of government, of economics, and of the classics. It is excellently printed and has a good index. In bulk it is large, but, being printed in England, its paper is so light in weight that the book is no burden to hold. When will American publishers make up their

minds to give their patrons relief from the heavily loaded fabric which wearies the hand and taxes the patience of both reviewer and ordinary reader?

Dante Gabriel Rossetti. By F. M. Hueffer. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Rembrandt. By Auguste Bréal. Same publishers.

"The Popular Library of Art" seems, so far as it may be judged by the two numbers that have reached us, to be conducted on other lines than those of the many similar series of small books on art which the times bring forth so plentifully. Here we have very little biography and no apparatus of lists of works, etc.; but, in each case, a "critical essay" which contains real criticism. Mr. Ford Madox Hueffer tries to analyze the art of Rossetti, and M. Auguste Bréal to appreciate that of Rembrandt, and each meets with considerable success in his effort and has produced an interesting and stimulating book.

Mr. Hueffer's main contention is that, in spite of the brilliancy, the ardor, and the gift of language that made him seem a leader, Rossetti was really more influenced than influencing. His pre-Raphaelism, which was brief, proceeded from Hunt and Madox Brown; his Florentine manner was made to suit Ruskin; his decorative bias was caught from Burne-Jones and Morris; his limited and intensely literary choice of subjects was largely due to intercourse with Swinburne and others. By nature he was a painter, with a dramatic gift—a clear eye for expression and gesture—a knack of seeing—which was overlaid, in his early work, by a factitious love for detailed realism, in his middle period by bric-à-brac-ery; and, often, in his later work, by a morbid love of symbolism and literary expression; so that he was seldom entirely himself. In his later days, when he could sell whatever he chose to do, he more nearly expressed his true individuality as it had come to be, not as it might have been. He was at his best when he was occupied only with beauty, when, "having recorded a type of feminine beauty, . . . he afterwards found a name for it; stood back in fact from his canvas, and only then discovered the moral of what he had been painting." He had practically no training and was always an amateur, never a master, yet he had genius, and while "to-morrow there will be a reaction," it is probable that there is in his work that which will make a re-reaction certain, and that the best of it will survive.

The most interesting part of M. Bréal's sympathetic account of Rembrandt is his discussion of that artist's toleration for, not to say love of, ugliness, particularly in the nude female figure. He has no patience with those who regret or apologize for Rembrandt's coarseness, and would take from him his "broad subjects" merely because they are "unworthy of his genius." Rembrandt's work was all of a piece. "Classic beauty is not his province. Life is what he seeks, the life that he knows and understands."

"Do the coats of the Syndics, or their conical hats . . . remind you of the harmonious draperies in the friezes of the Parthenon? And if you admit that Rem-

brandt has been able to find and make you feel a new beauty . . . in the lines, colors, and reflections of his fellow-townsmen's clothed bodies, why do you refuse to see the delicate tones, the palpitating flesh, the marvellous suppleness of line and modelling, the comprehension of certain harmonies of the human body shown by Rembrandt in his nudes? Accustomed to see the representatives of an academic tradition exhibit their carefully cleaned, smoothed, and polished dolls, . . . the sight of something real shocks and disgusts you.

If any one of our contemporaries, worn out by the driving life of towns, or any townswoman of the twentieth century, deformed by stays, grown heavy by overfeeding, or exhausted by a life in which little attention is given to 'eurythmy,' should be tempted to reproach Rembrandt with a realism that seems at first sight excessive, they should reflect that Rembrandt is perhaps the only one of the old masters who would have been capable of feeling, expressing, and making us understand and love the living charm and grace hidden in these bodies of ours, bodies on which we heap our mendacious dresses, and of which we fear the nakedness because we do not know how to see the beauty."

All this is good and healthy criticism as far as it goes, but it does not quite satisfy. Let any painter who has spent thirty years studying the human body without its "mendacious dresses" say whether Rembrandt's women are not vastly uglier than life. Let him who has seen how supremely lovely can be the body of a young girl, how much harmonious line and beauty of structure is to be found, by him who has eyes for it, in the forms of the commonest models, say whether the one word "realism" adequately explains the hideousness of these "Dianas" and "Bathshebas." Michelangelo did not make "smooth and polished dolls," but he would have seen wonders of beautiful form and line in any human body because form and line were what he was looking for. Rembrandt did not see them because he had no care for form and line. His one love was character, his one aim expression, his one means light and shade. M. Bréal has pointed out that Rembrandt never drew a single figure, there being always some suggestion, however slight, of the surroundings in which it is placed. It may be as truly said that he never drew an outline. When he seems working in pure line it is not the contour he is drawing—his line follows the mass, suggests the direction of folds or the bagging of muscles, breaks, and continues again. The line itself is suggested (or potential) light and shade. Beauty of form, as such, was nothing to him, and he cared for form at all only as it gave surfaces for light to fall on and shadows to catch in. He drew a woman as he did a pig, from the picturesque point of view; and the creased and flabby shapes of his ugly women were better, for his purposes, than would have been the rounded limbs of a Greek nymph. So he expressed the soul of a poet through forms of an astounding vulgarity, and conveyed a depth of sentiment almost unique in art, though the figures he drew are often almost inconceivably grotesque.

It was a good thought, instead of small and inadequate reproductions of Rembrandt's famous pictures, to give, in the illustrations of this volume, reproductions of etchings and drawings which suffer less by reduction, and some of which are comparatively little known. The translation seems to be excellent.

Lenox and the Berkshire Highlands. By R. De Witt Mallary. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

A well-known resident of Berkshire has here brought together a number of essays, and addresses, some of which have been read before various literary and historical societies, setting forth particularly, in many varied aspects, the natural charms of Lenox and its surrounding neighborhood. While his aim is not that of an historian, his book will be found by many no less interesting for what it records of past conditions than for what it says of the existing state of things.

Old-time Lenox, inhabited since 1750 and incorporated in 1767, became the shire town twenty years later, and so remained for more than eighty years, or until 1868, when Pittsfield was made the county seat. During many years of this period Lenox was the most influential centre of western Massachusetts in political, religious, educational, and social matters. It became famous as the resort and dwelling-place of many men and women, celebrated in art and literature, whose names passed into history more than half a century ago. Modern Lenox, no less widely known, has achieved far greater fame within the last twenty years through the creation of beautiful estates, and palatial villas, the magnificent country seats of wealthy summer residents, whose advent has wholly changed the character of the place and of its people.

Prehistoric and primitive Stockbridge seems likewise no less interesting for what it formerly was in the days of the Indian mission and the Established Church of Berkshire, under the spiritual guidance and theological teaching of Jonathan Edwards, than for what it now is under modern influence and conditions, one of the loveliest villages of America, a beautiful realization of the high ideals of the founders of the Laurel Hill Association, the parent of more than a thousand similar organizations in the form of village-improvement societies, scattered throughout the United States.

Great changes have come to pass in Berkshire since the days of the Established Congregational Church, when a certain person holding Episcopal preferences, having applied for a certificate of exemption from payment of taxes for the support of the Congregational Church, obtained one reading as follows: "This is to certify that A. B. has renounced the Christian religion and joined the Episcopal Church!" Nowadays, the burning questions of Jonathan Edwards's day are no longer thought of, and the good people of Lenox and Stockbridge are largely only "episcopal pious." Among the summer residents of both places there are many strictly warm-weather Episcopalians, who, at the low temperatures of their winter homes, are good Presbyterians or even frigid Unitarians. The latter abound in Stockbridge especially; and the summer congregations of the Episcopal Church there are notably made up of thawed-out Unitarians.

Lenox and Stockbridge are adjoining towns whose respective centres are about six miles apart. Their geographical and social boundaries or dividing-lines are not precisely coincident, and some residents whose houses are in one township are socially at home in the other. From its

superior height and more magnificent establishments, Lenox looks proudly down upon the humbler, but no less well-contented village, while the modest cottager of Stockbridge finds little occasion to violate the tenth commandment in coveting his neighbor's house or anything that is his in Lenox. The two communities dwell together harmoniously, each thinking well of its neighbor, and both still more highly of themselves; and it has been fitly said, by way of social comparison of the two places, that in Stockbridge the neighbors esteem, while in Lenox they estimate, each other.

Mr. Mallary's volume is substantial and very attractive in appearance.

The Story of the Art of Music. By Frederick J. Crowest. Appleton & Co.

Real courage is a trait which everybody admires, and genuine originality is so rare that its sporadic occurrence always delights the jaded reviewer. It is, therefore, a pleasure to sit in judgment on a book like Mr. Crowest's, which is brimful of noble courage and almost unparalleled originality. He has no mercy on those foolish musicians and music-lovers who believe that the second half of the nineteenth century marks the climax of their art, but informs them undauntedly that Schumann (who died in 1856) "is the last, for the present, of the great masters of music." "Wagner, Raff, Dvorák, Rubinstein, Liszt, Tschaiakowsky [sic]," and all the other modern composers, with the exception of Brahms, have "nothing genuinely new in them: They only say merely the old things over again." Such charlatans as Franz, Grieg, Bizet, Saint-Saëns, Goldmark, Humperdinck, Jensen, Johann and Richard Strauss, MacDowell, Paderewski, etc., Mr. Crowest does not even mention, and rightly so; for to refer to them in a history of music would only encourage them.

Mr. Crowest's opinions, it will be conceded, are peculiarly and exclusively his own. His originality is further revealed in the reasons he gives for them. For instance, it is universally believed that Wagner reformed the opera by abolishing the arias and other unconnected numbers, and making it a work of art connected in all its parts. Mr. Crowest knows better; he informs us that "Beethoven, in one of his moods of discontent, wrote: 'If I were to write an opera after my own mind, these people would run away, for they would find in it none of the arias, duets, terzets, and all the stuff with which the ordinary operatic patch-work is made up.'" "Here," our author adds triumphantly, "was the fundamental principle of all Wagner's theories."

The only objection—a slight one, to be sure—to this grand historic discovery is that Beethoven never said anything of the kind. He wrote only one opera, which is absolutely conventional in its use of arias and other operatic patchwork. The words quoted by our author were arbitrarily put into Beethoven's mouth by Richard Wagner himself when, at the age of twenty-seven, he wrote his fanciful novelette, entitled, 'A Pilgrimage to Beethoven.'

It must not be inferred that such a model historian as Mr. Crowest could be capable of such a thing as prejudice. He shows the

same courageous disregard of facts and universally accepted opinions in his treatment of some older composers. Concerning Schubert, we are told that he composed nine symphonies, leaving the ninth unfinished. Inasmuch as all biographers and historians are agreed that it was the eighth symphony that remained unfinished, this item of news may be regarded as what journalists call a "scoop." Almost superhuman critical acumen is, moreover, shown by our author when he writes, regarding the songs of Schubert: "Like most German songs, they are mainly written for almost any voice, and consequently belong to none—so that for legitimate singing they are almost a sealed book. . . . Such leaps as repeated sevenths and ninths are scarcely agreeable baits for vocalists." Poor Schubert! a victim to his own repeated sevenths and ninths! Any composer of vaudeville tunes could have taught him to avoid such fatal blunders.

Mr. Crowest's book is dated 1902. On page 177 he informs us that "Tschaičkowsky [sic] still lives." There is a current belief that Tchaikovsky died at St. Petersburg on the 6th of November in the year 1893. Mr. Crowest cannot possibly have been unaware of this fact; he probably ignored it deliberately for the sake of originality and to obviate the necessity of saying pleasant things about a dead man who was a mere modern composer. No reasonable objection can, of course, be made to this, but the reviewer may perhaps timidly hint that in always putting two dots over the *o* in Tchaikovsky's name, the author allowed his genius for originality somewhat too free a swing. His changing the sex of the Flying Dutchman—"Die Fliegende Holländer"—is doubtless a mere ebullition of his sense of humor, as are his remarks that Chopin belongs to the French school and that Beethoven "opened a path for Schopenhauer's spirit and reasoning."

After the harsh treatment to which Mr. Crowest subjects other modern composers, it is pleasant to find him saying some nice things about Liszt. He tells us that Liszt's compositions "quickly attracted the attention of the musical world." Liszt himself, it is true, fancied that his works received very little notice, and to the end of his life he used to say, "I can wait." Obviously, in a conflict of this sort, credence must be given to Mr. Crowest. This erudite Englishman also shows a rare insight into the aspirations of genius when he says, regarding Liszt, that "he posed—rather than composed," and adds that "this statement is made not slightly, but to explain that he was an interpreter rather than a creator." There is nothing more to be said about Mr. Crowest's masterwork except that it belongs to a series of books called "The Library of Useful Stories."

Bookbinding and the Care of Books: A Handbook for Amateurs, Bookbinders, and Librarians. By Douglas Cockerell. With drawings by Noel Rooke and other illustrations. (Volume I. of the Artistic Crafts Series of Technical Handbooks; edited by W. R. Lethaby.) D. Appleton & Co. 1902. Pp. 342.

This book is sure to please the student at first glance, for its appearance is altogether in its favor. Printing and paper are what

they should be for a good working book, and the illustrations—broad-line drawings without elaboration of shade—are perfectly descriptive and utilitarian, and still most pleasant to the eye. In addition to the text illustrations, a dozen photographic plates representing fine old bindings are inserted at the end. Examination of the text shows no important exception to the rule that books of handicraft are not to be found well and pleasantly written. The meaning is obvious if one seeks for it, but it cannot be said that the subject is perfectly well presented. Still, all that is needed is intelligibly put before the reader, who should not expect to grasp the complicated business of preparing and binding a book at one reading of a manual. The outsider will learn all that he need know from this volume; and even the practised binder will, we should think, find much in the way of valuable hints, and still more in the way of encouraging insistence upon points which he is much too apt to neglect. Finally, beginning with page 291, there is something for the book-owner, namely, the most explicit instructions as to avoiding or putting by the dangers which threaten the bound book, and as to the repairs it may need.

Any one concerned with work upon books, or prints, or photographs—in fact, any working student or any owner of books who handles them himself—will find abundant reason to thank the author for the explicit directions given; such as those about mounting photographs (page 180), about scrap-books, about inlaying, about the composition of preservative liquids to rub upon leather bindings, and also for much good advice with regard to the lettering, the leather, the "end papers" or linings, and the bothering transparent tissue papers facing the plates, or the stiffer and more opaque sheets, still greater hindrances to the workman. A workmanlike good taste governs the advice in every instance. A private or a public library kept up according to the standard established here would be an excellent thing to frequent and an admirable thing to see.

A word must be said about the promise given by the series of which this is the first book. A volume is announced on gold and silversmith's work, and one on cabinet-making and designing, and it is stated that they will be "richly illustrated"—let us hope, rather, intelligently illustrated, as is this one. The editor, Mr. Lethaby, who opens the series with a brief editor's preface in the present volume, and who is announced on the wrapper as "a Director of the London City Council Central School of Arts and the Crafts, and Professor of Design at South Kensington," is more than that. It is, indeed, true that Mr. Lethaby has not published much. He is one of the two authors of that admirable book, "The Church of Sancta Sophia, Constantinople," and the sole author of the interesting essay, "Architecture, Mysticism, and Myth," and of an excellent little book on architectural leadwork, ancient and modern. His services to the theoretical student of art have, however, been greater than this, he being a writer in periodicals and the whole effect of his teaching being of the loftiest kind, involving the complete recognition of a high ideal, and working always for the discrimination of truly artistic work from that which is controlled and inspired by commercialism. This is the spirit which in-

spires his article *Design* in the recently issued *Dictionary of Architecture and Building*.

Nature Study and Life. By Dr. Clifton F. Hodge of Clark University. Boston: Ginn & Co.

In this teachers' manual, Dr. Hodge aims to bring the children into immediate contact with nature, giving them an active and creative part in the study, binding home and school closer together by the practical values of their work, and helping to prepare them for social life by teaching them, as Ruskin says, "with respect to things to enforce tidiness and fruitfulness," that with respect to men they may "enforce justice." Most other plans of nature-study emphasize the scientific or the aesthetic side of the subject; Dr. Hodge's plan takes large account of the economic side. In explanation of this fact, he says:

"Nothing can be farther from my thought [than to recognize merely economic values], . . . but I would include all human values in about the relations that they bear to life. . . . I have made economic values prominent because . . . money is the common, universal expression of value that every one understands and respects; and, while we realize that there are many things that money cannot buy, no other measure of value is so fundamental to the ordinary affairs of life. Money value is, moreover, the trunk that supports many of the higher values."

The book possesses a unity of purpose such as public-school nature-teaching too often lacks. It leaves room, also, for the aesthetic values of the subject, gaining, perhaps, by not insisting too strongly upon them. It treats of plants and animals that have economic value, and, as far as possible, considers them in their relations to the child's home life. It prefers, as Dr. Stanley Hall says, in his introduction, "instead of elaborate methods applied to a few species," "the essential and salient points about many." The author takes up the domestic animals, beginning with children's pets; he treats of certain ornamental and agricultural plants, giving valuable lessons in gardening, horticulture, and arboriculture, which, as far as may be, the children are to put into practice; he discusses the insects, birds, and other animals that benefit or injure such plants, and suggests ways of encouraging the beneficial species and destroying the noxious ones; he also discusses the insects of the household, and the best methods of combating them; he gives an adequate and clever treatment of flowerless plants, enlarging upon such as directly affect man's interests, including as much bacteriology as will give children an idea of the causes of disease and its prevention by proper sanitation. The systematic, anatomical, mechanical, and ecological aspects of biology are intentionally omitted from the plan. A disproportionate amount of space is given to insects, birds, and batrachians, while little attention is paid to fish and other food-producing animals.

The book concludes with suggestions for a full course in nature study, running through the nine grades of primary and grammar-school work. If all the other subjects that must find a place in these nine years should be studied in courses suitably proportionate to this, there is reason to fear either that the teaching would lack

thoroughness, or that many children would be overtrained.

The Strange Adventures of Andrew Battell of Leigh in Angola and the Adjoining Region. Reprinted from 'Purchas his Pilgrimes.' Edited, with notes and a concise history of Kongo and Angola, by E. G. Ravenstein. London: Hakluyt Society. 1901. 8vo, pp. xx, 210. Maps.

Andrew Battell was a good representative of the earliest builders of the British Empire—not a leader, but one of the sturdy rank and file to whose adventurous spirit and manly qualities the success of the leaders was mainly due. He was one of the crew of a pinnace of fifty tons, which sailed from England in 1589 on a privateering cruise to the coast of South America. Taken prisoner in Brazil, he was deported by the "Portugalls" to their convict colony of Angola. Here he was employed in trading expeditions, and, with his fellow-convicts, "Egyptians and Moriscoes," in raiding the neighboring tribes to procure the slaves who were the principal commercial product of the colony. A considerable time was spent in prison, the result of repeated attempts to escape. Eighteen years passed before Battell regained his liberty and returned to his home in Leigh, accompanied by a negro boy. Among those who heard him tell of his "strange adventures" was the vicar of the next parish, and it does not seem impossible that his interviews with the sailor may have led the Rev. Samuel Purchas to undertake the great work with which his name associated. However this may be, when 'His Pilgrimage' appeared three or four years later, it contained "the report of Andrew Battell, my near neighbor," on the "religion and the customs of the peoples of Angola, Congo, and Loango." The personal narrative, compiled from papers found after Battell's death, was incorporated in Purchas's 'Hakluytus Posthumus,' published in 1625, "the earliest record of travels in the interior of this part of Africa."

The chief impression made by these quaint travellers' tales, now published separately by the Hakluyt Society, is that the condition of the natives of this region was far better in the sixteenth century than it is now, after four hundred years of contact with whites. The laziness of the West African is proverbial. But Battell says, "The men in this kingdom [Loango] make good store of palm-cloth of sundry sorts, very fine and curious. They are never idle; for they make fine caps of needlework as they go in the streets." From references to the various food products, manufactured goods, and ivory sold in the daily markets, it is evident that the people were generally industrious and prosperous. An attractive picture is drawn of the capital town, "full of palm and plaine-trees," whose "streets are wide and long and always clean swept." The court customs, minutely described, were also marked with a certain dignity and decorum, indicating a condition above the barbarism that now generally prevails. But the narrative shows plainly that the deterioration had already begun. Raids by the interior tribes, attracted by the wealth of the coast people, were frequent. Battell spent sixteen months with some roving man-eating warriors, many thousand strong, having a remarkable military organization resembling that of the

Zulus and Sudan Dervishes. These Jagas had overrun a large section, cutting down palms, robbing harvests, neither sowing nor planting, not even bringing up their own children. Their numbers were recruited from the children of their victims.

The export slave-trade was a greater curse than the most devastating raids. At this time, according to Portuguese writers, eight to ten thousand slaves were carried annually to Brazil and the West Indies from this colony; but one of Purchas's informants says that "eight and twenty thousand slaves (a number almost incredible, yet such as the Portugals told him) were yearly shipped from Angola and Congo, at the Haven of Loanda." Slave-hunting expeditions were the main, though not the only, source of supply. Battell gives an interesting account of the ceremonies attending the submission of a chief. Before he is admitted to the Governor's presence, he gives two slaves to the page, and then thirty or forty to the Governor himself, who, at the end of the interview, "calleth a soldier, which hath deserved a reward, and giveth the Lord [chief] to him. . . . So that there is no Portugal soldier of any account, but hath his negro *sova*, or Lord." It should be added that Roman Catholic missionaries of that time "never raised a protest against this traffic, although it was against the tenets of their Church, for they profited by it." For a marriage fee, for instance, "a slave was expected." "The only thing which they did for the wretched slaves was to endeavor to secure, as far as possible, that they should not fall into the hands of heretics; so that at least their souls might be saved, whatever became of their bodies."

Our seaman seems to have been an unusually observant man, and interested in the people among whom a strange fate had thrown him. Purchas naturally noted down most fully his accounts of their religious customs and fetishes, but he gives some information on a great variety of subjects. There is a tantalizing reference to "a kind of little people called Matimbais, which are no bigger than boys of twelve years old, but are very thick, and live only upon flesh, which they kill in the woods with their bows and darts." Like the pygmies of Stanley's great forest, they shunned all intercourse with their fellows, not entering their houses, and if by chance any "pass where they dwell, they will forsake that place and go to another." His strangest tale, next to that of a crocodile "so huge and greedy that he devoured a chained company of eight or nine slaves," is that of the Pongo or gorilla who "took a negro boy of his, which lived a month with them, for they hurt not those which they surprise at unawares, except they look on them, which he [the boy] avoided." Purchas adds, "I saw the negro boy."

The editor, Mr. E. G. Ravenstein, has contributed a large number of valuable explanatory notes to the narrative, and, in an appendix, a concise history of Kongo and Angola from the time of their discovery to the end of the seventeenth century. These show a vast amount of painstaking labor, as do also the two maps which illustrate the volume.

General Forrest. By Capt. J. Harvey Mathes. With illustrations and maps. Great Commanders. D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

"And who is Nathan Bedford Forrest that

he fills so large a book?" was the exclamation of a friend of the reviewer, not unfamiliar with history, but belonging to a generation to whom only the notable figures of the War for the Union were famous, as he saw the name in large letters upon the cover of an earlier and more voluminous account of the career of the Confederate cavalryman than that which Capt. Mathes has given us. The wonder thus uttered illustrates a doubt which may occur even to those who were contemporaries of that war, in application to the present volume, whether the achievements and abilities of Forrest, brilliant though they were, with possibly a genius for certain phases of military activity, entitle an officer whose operations were in a subordinate position and with comparatively small bodies of troops to be classed among the great commanders. For Forrest was, at the utmost, a highly efficient and picturesque partisan officer. It was only near the end of the war that his services in thwarting many a nicely laid scheme of the Union generals to carry the war into the fertile heart of the Confederacy, and his audacity in capturing or alarming widely scattered outposts of his adversaries, earned for him the rank of Major-General. The Confederate Government showed no disposition to call him to any high command, and it is questionable whether his temperament would have permitted him to work harmoniously in the independent command of a large force as the superior of men of nearly equal ability and ambition, such as was the average corps general.

What Forrest liked, and where he showed himself at his best, was the head of a charge, to be in the thick of assault with vigorous use of his own sabre and pistol; to ride far and long for the purpose of capturing some valuable store of supplies; to cut a line of communication, or to carry panic into the headquarters of some careless Union general snug housed in a city. In such enterprises he was inexhaustibly fertile of resource, skilful to the utmost in extricating his men from perilous plights, and not only an unceasing annoyance to department commanders and even to the Washington authorities, but a good deal of a terror to lesser personages having pretensions to military ability.

The tardiness with which recognition of his merit came from Richmond is explicable upon more probable grounds than the jealousy of his immediate superiors or the prejudice of the Confederate rulers in favor of West Point generals. Forrest belonged, socially and intellectually, to that class upon whom the rulers of the South looked with traditional contempt. He was an uneducated poor white, before the war a slave-dealer; and through his life, especially during the war and sometimes in his relations with men above him in rank with whom he had differences, he showed the manners of a state of society in which personal combat and the impulsive resort to fire-arms to avenge injuries, real or fancied, were the habitual substitute for the tedious processes of the law courts. In respect of his education, tradition, whose legend Capt. Mathes has preserved in a note, reports that, notwithstanding the intellectual discipline of participation in great affairs upon great native force of mind, his attempts at writing remained ludicrously phonetic.

Capt. Mathes has written in a spirit of which there can be no criticism unless it be that which is apt to lie against most biography, that he undertakes rather a vindication and eulogy of his hero than an impartial estimate of his place among soldiers. The story is interesting, and in no respect more profitable for the future student of the evolution of the country than in the incidental pictures of the state of society in the South, its fightings, wooings, and rude pleasures, which flourished especially in the atmosphere of negro slavery.

Éléments d'une Psychologie Politique du Peuple Américain. Par Émile Boutmy. New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

We cannot say that M. Boutmy has been happy in his choice of a title. He begins by showing what a mongrel horde inhabits our country, and thus demonstrates that, even if we can speak of the American people as an entity, it is impossible that it should have a distinctive political psychology. The case was different when Tocqueville wrote, and he did in fact construct a psychology, either of the American people or of some imaginary democracy. Mr. Bryce, also, without pretending to elaborate a psychology, furnished us with a number of acute and instructive generalizations, which, perhaps, constitute as much of a political philosophy as is attainable. M. Boutmy, it is true, tells us that our patriotism, or public spirit, has "une psychologie très particulière"; there is nothing like it in France. Our motive is not the "prestige d'imagination," which forms the substance of French patriotism, but "un esprit public vigoureux, clairvoyant, tout entier dans le présent et dans les faits." But we cannot say that our knowledge is much increased by generalities of this kind. It is easy to write them; it would be hard to prove them; and they would be of very moderate scientific value even if they were established.

Not the least interesting part of M. Boutmy's essay is his criticism of the works of Tocqueville and Bryce. In his estimate of the former he agrees substantially, and sometimes almost literally, with Mr. Bryce; but it is satisfactory to get the French point of view. Of the 'American Commonwealth' M. Boutmy speaks with the greatest admiration; but at the same time he points out certain limitations. No doubt Mr. Bryce's book is not distinguished by unity; it is far from systematic. There are many gaps in it; if it be regarded as meant to cover the field completely. M. Boutmy tells us how he would have written the book had he possessed Mr. Bryce's

equipment. He would have begun with the individual man, exhibiting him as he appeared at successive periods of immigration, and as influenced by various impulses. Then he would have described the environment, with its effect on the individual; and finally, the general result as it appears in various institutions. Religion, philosophy, poetry, art, and science should have been explained; the family and its members, property, corporations, State governments, and the Federal Government, should have had their development traced.

We cannot deny that a work of this description would be entertaining, but we fear that the temptation to round out theories might impair its historical value. At all events, M. Boutmy has given us nothing of the kind. His statistical and historical information is derived from sources within our reach, the trustworthiness of which we can estimate, perhaps, better than he. His long disquisition on "Religion and the Ideal," and his short one on "Imperialism and the Constitution," appear to us uninteresting, if not superficial. The really valuable part of the book is that which explains the difference in the attitude toward their rulers of the French and the American citizens. To the Frenchman, the Government is a higher organism, on which he depends for protection against invasion from abroad and molestation at home. He regards it with awe, and submits to it without question. But the first settlers in America brought with them little reverence for rulers, and took care of themselves without the aid of Government. The tradition that rulers are merely servants of the people, chosen to carry out certain specific purposes, and possessed of no more wisdom than their fellow-citizens, has affected the whole framework of our Government, and is still potent. There is no tradition of the kind in France, because there is no historical basis for it. The political history of that country is little but a record of the development of despotic power, the nature of which is the same, whether the Government be called kingdom, empire, or republic.

In the development of the contrasts arising from these differences in political forces, M. Boutmy is at his best. If we do not understand ourselves much better than before, we get clearer views of the French system. He justly criticises our municipal governments; but here he falls into an inconsistency. If these governments are regulated by the State, how is it in France? How much can the people of a commune accomplish if the Prefect opposes them? M. Boutmy is amazed at the restrictions placed on our legislators, but the explanation is to be found in the existence of

local self-government. The people of a New England town do not want to have their management of their own affairs interfered with by the Legislature; hence the restraints of our constitutions. In France the people of a commune are not allowed, and never have been allowed, to govern themselves, and they are consequently ignorant of the elementary principles of government. The subject is interesting, and we should be grateful if M. Boutmy would pursue it further. But we think that he can teach us more of his country than of ours.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Ayer's Newspaper Annual, 1902. Philadelphia: N. W. Ayer & Son. \$5.
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 Jastrow, Morris, jr. Die Religion Babylonien und Assyriens. Glessen: J. Ricker.
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 Kenyon, J. B. Remembered Days. Eaton & Mains. \$1.
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 Myers, A. C. Quaker Arrivals at Philadelphia, 1682-1750. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach.
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 Pierson, A. T. The Garden Knot. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 60 cents.
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 Raju, P. V. R. Indian Fables. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50.
 Read, Ople. The Starbuck. Chicago: Laird & Lee. \$1.50.
 Ridgeway, Major. Early Recollections of James Whitcomb Riley. Harrison (Ohio): Published by the Author. 50c.
 Roberts, Morley. The Way of a Man. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.
 Roddy, H. J. Elementary Geography. American Book Co. 50 cents.
 Sandys, Miles. Michael Carmichael. Chicago: Laird & Lee. \$1.25.
 Sanford, Fernando. Elements of Physics. H. Holt & Co. \$1.20.
 Sill, Edward Rowland. Poems. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
 Simons, A. M. The American Farmer. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
 Taylor, E. L. Second Reader. Werner School Book Co.
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 "The Georgian Period." Being Measured Drawings of Colonial Work, Part X. American Architect and Building News.
 The Jewish Encyclopædia, vol. II. Funk & Wagnalls Co.
 The Works of Théophile Gautier, Vols. XVII. and XVIII. George D. Sproul.
 Waldron, W. H. Company Commanders' Manual of Army Regulations. Kansas City (Mo.): Hudson-Kimberly Pub. Co.

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LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO., New York.

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